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ABSTRACT

Serving as the journal of the Manitoba Social Science Teachers' Association, this issue commemorates United Nations Day with the editorial, "Teaching about the United Nations" (Ken Osborne). Another article devoted to the international organization is "The United Nations and International Peace and Security" (Ken Osborne). The article is intended to: (1) introduce students to selected approaches to world peace and security; (2) describe the United Nations in this wider context; and (3) help students think about the issues involved. The article is divided into nine sections devoted to different aspects of world peace and the United Nations. Most are followed by a list of questions and activities. An outline of topics and subtopics on a U.N. unit, a profile of the U.N. Secretary General, Boutros Boutros-Ghali, and an assessment of the United Nations taken from the 1988 annual report of then secretary general, Perez de Cuellar are included. Ten other articles include: (1) a conference program; (2) "Heritage Fair"; (3) "The Federal Election" (Ken Osborne); (4) "Canada's Electoral System" (Elections Canada); (5) "Canada's Electoral System: How It Evolved and How It Works" (Elections Canada '88); (6) "A Response to the High School Review" (Chris Johnson); (7) "An Earthbound Design for Spaceship Earth" (E. Kim Tyson); (8) "A Scavenger Hunt for Grade 7 Geography" (Steve Patrick); (9) "Some Activities for Grade 7 Geography" (Nancy Baker); and (10) "The Western Cordillera: A Role-Play Activity for Grade 10" (David Hoeppner). (DK)

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ED 368 612

THE MANITOBA SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHER

MSSTA

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United Nations Day, 24 October

VOLUME 20, NO.1 SEPTEMBER 1993

SO 023 456

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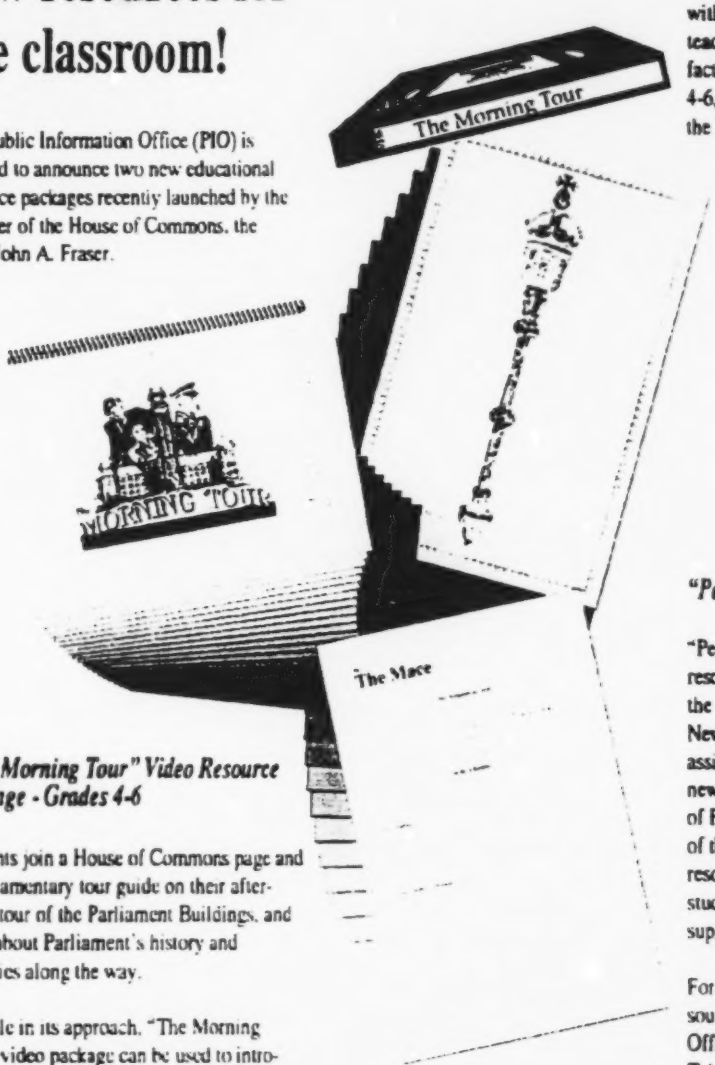
Public Information Office, House of Commons

Speaker launches new resources for the classroom!

The Public Information Office (PIO) is pleased to announce two new educational resource packages recently launched by the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Hon. John A. Fraser.

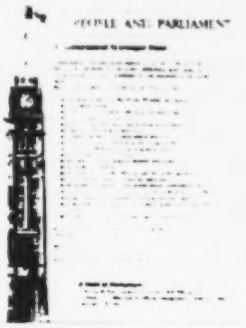


"The Morning Tour" Video Resource Package - Grades 4-6

Students join a House of Commons page and a parliamentary tour guide on their after-hours tour of the Parliament Buildings, and learn about Parliament's history and activities along the way.

Flexible in its approach, "The Morning Tour" video package can be used to introduce a unit on Canada's government, prepare a class for a visit from their Member of Parliament, or provide a sneak preview to the Parliament Buildings before a visit.

Piloted and assessed by educators from across Canada, the most up-to-date education techniques have been applied to this video's development. "The Morning Tour" comes with a resource package containing a teacher's guide, study cards, brochures and fact sheets. Although designed for grades 4-6, it can be adapted to other levels and to the local curricula.



"People & Parliament" - Grades 7-12

"People & Parliament" is an educational resource package for teachers developed by the Canadian Daily Newspaper Association's Newspaper In Education program with the assistance of the PIO. Using the daily newspaper, students learn about the workings of Parliament as reflected in the news stories of the day. The "People & Parliament" resource package contains instructions for use, student activity cards and information-packed supplements on Canada's Parliament.

For more information on educational resources, please contact the Public Information Office, House of Commons, Ottawa, K1A 0A6
Telephone: (613) 992-4793
TDD: (613) 995-2266

Disponible en français également

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The Manitoba Social Science Teacher

Volume 20, Number 1 **September 1993**

Sure could use a little good news today! 5
SAG Conference 1993

Heritage Fair 8

The United Nations and International Peace and Security 11
Ken Osborne

The federal election 26
Ken Osborne

Canada's electoral system 28
Elections Canada

Canada's electoral system: How it evolved and how it works 30
Elections Canada '88

A response to the High School Review 33
Chris Johnson

An earthbound design for spaceship earth 39
E. Kim Tyson

A scavenger hunt for grade 7 geography 41
Steve Patrick

Some activities for grade 7 geography 42
Nancy Baker

The Western Cordillera: A role-play activity for Grade 10 Geography 44
David Hoeppner

Editorial

Teaching about the United Nations 2

The Manitoba Social Science Teacher is the official publication of the Manitoba Social Science Teachers' Association and is printed by The Manitoba Teachers' Society, 191 Harcourt Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba R3J 3H2. Opinions of the writers are not necessarily those of either MSSTA or The Manitoba Teachers' Society.

ISSN 0315-9116

"Contents Indexed in The Canadian Education Index"

Greetings to members

The new President of the Association, David McDowell, the Executive, and the Board of Directors, extend to all members their very best wishes for a rewarding and successful school year. We are all faced with new and unsettling problems. Many divisions have cut back professional development time. Some have introduced days without pay. And some have reduced the amount of preparation time. In effect, workloads have been increased while resources have been reduced. We are expected to do more with less.

Despite this, the importance of a sound education in history, geography, and social studies, is as crucial as it ever was. Indeed, the circumstances in which the world finds itself, now and for the foreseeable future, it is perhaps more important than ever before. While governments emphasize education for competitiveness, for economic growth, for skills training, the need for a socially committed, democratically minded, and informed citizenry is ever more urgent. Our students need the knowledge and the skills we can give them if they are to function as citizens now and in the future.

It will not be an easy year, but our work is vital.

PLEASE RENEW YOUR MEMBERSHIP

In the past most MSSTA members have joined the Association through registering for SAG. The cutbacks in professional development time make this more difficult this year. Thus, it is important that members take the initiative to renew their membership. This is the only way to receive the journal and other services. Please send a cheque for $10.00 made payable to MSSTA and sent to either:

The Manitoba Teachers' Society
SAG Membership Secretary
191 Harcourt Street
Winnipeg, MB R3J 3H2

or

Henry Neudorf
599 Wallace Avenue
Winnipeg, MB
R2E 0S1

Name _____

Address _____ Postal Code _____

Position/Specialty _____

School _____ Division _____

Home phone no. _____ Levels taught _____

Member MTS: Yes ☐ No ☐

Editorial

Teaching about the United Nations

Ken Osborne

October 24, United Nations Day

October 24 is United Nations Day, as it has been for many years past, so designated because on 24 October, 1945, enough governments had signed the United Nations Charter to bring it into effect. The Charter had been approved at an international conference held in San Francisco that began in April of that year, and was attended by some 50 countries. On 26 June, 1945, they signed the Charter and agreed that it would come into force when formally ratified by the Big 5 (the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain, France and China) and a majority of the other countries in attendance. This happened on 24 October, and on 10 January, 1946, the General Assembly of the United Nations began its first meeting. Shortly afterwards, on 16 April, 1946, the League of Nations officially voted itself out of existence, to make way for the new organization.

Much has happened since then and it is probably fair to say that the record of the United Nations has fallen far below what its more enthusiastic supporters hoped for in those heady days at the end of the Second World War. As shown by their insistence on maintaining the right of veto, the great powers had all been unwilling to see the new organization grow too independent or too powerful. As its name suggests, the United Nations was an organization of countries (or, more accurately, of governments), not some supranational embryo of world government. Internationalists such as H.G. Wells and John Dewey had in years past condemned the League of Nations for being, not a League of peoples but of governments, and thus doomed to serve merely as an arena in which governments pursued what they saw as their national interests. They could have said the same of the United Nations which quickly fell victim to the Cold War, with the western powers using it as a stick with which to beat the Soviet Union and China, and the communist powers seeing it as a western instrument designed to put them at a disadvantage in world opinion. In some ways, it is a miracle that the United Nations survived those Cold War years. That it did survive testifies not only to the determination of various countries (including Canada) that it should, but also to an unspoken realization, even on the part of the superpowers, that they and the world would be worse off without it. Somewhere in most of us, it seems, is an awareness that in today's world we need something like the United Nations if we are to deal at all effectively with the problems that face us.

These days especially, the United Nations is more than ever in the news. Bosnia, Somalia, to a lesser extent Cambodia, have drawn attention to the work of the organization, and sometimes to its limitations. Discussion of those limitations, however, suggests that the fundamental feature of the United Nations is still not widely understood, namely that it can do only what its member-states permit it to do. The Secretary-General has a certain power of influence, negotiation and persuasion, but, as an organization, the United Nations has no powers beyond those given it through the Security Council and the General Assembly. It does not come close to being a world government. It is not even a world police-force. More than anything else, it is a forum for discussion and deliberation and certain forms of approved action.

If we accuse the United Nations of indecision, or weakness, or failure, we accuse ourselves. If we want the United Nations to have more independence of action, or wider powers, governments have to be prepared to accept this. At the moment, however, many of them are unwilling even to pay their dues in full, thus ensuring that the United Nations hobbles from one financial crisis to the next. The *Globe and Mail* (6 August, 1993) reported that the United Nations faces the worst financial crisis in its history, owing more than $2 billion U.S., and having only enough cash to last for about one month. Of the 184 member-states of the United Nations, about 165 are behind in their contributions, owing $848 million U.S. in regular dues and another $1.193 billion U.S. for peacekeeping operations. Canada, incidentally, is one of those rare countries that pays its contributions in full and before the deadline, but its example is obviously little followed.

But if governments are to take the United Nations more seriously, the pressure will presumably have to come from the people, certainly in those countries, like our own, where people are lucky enough to be able to exercise such pres-

sure. In other words, fundamentally, the success of the United Nations depends on public opinion, and thus to some extent on education.

Unfortunately, almost everywhere in the world, school and university curricula are remarkably silent on the United Nations. It gets a mention in some history and political science courses, but these are taken by only a few students. It is safe to say that most students who graduate from high school, college or university, even when they have taken history and social science courses, have been taught little if anything about the United Nations. Every September, for example, I meet a new batch of University history majors. They have either completed their program or are very close to doing so, and some have honours or masters degrees. They are well informed, bright and intelligent people, but when I give them a basic United Nations quiz in connection with United Nations Day, the results are abysmal. It is not their fault: virtually nowhere have they been have they been required to study anything systematically about the United Nations. Recently, I had occasion to look at a number of university-level history texts covering the world since 1945. Without exception, they gave the United Nations the most cursory treatment: a paragraph or so on its founding; a mention in connection with the Korean War, the Suez crisis, the Congo and so forth — but always in a way that made the U.N.'s role a very subordinate part of the story; and virtually nothing about the vast range and variety of the non-political activities of the organization. And, so far as I can tell, school texts are no better. Very rarely do the books give, say, a whole chapter or a systematic chapter to the United Nations, and certainly not in Manitoba. So far as social studies is concerned, the United Nations is at best a marginal topic, save for that dedicated minority of teachers who involve their students in model United Nations Assemblies or other related activities.

And things are no better in the general media. To its credit, the *Globe and Mail* gives the United Nations a certain amount of attention, not only to do with specific crises or incidents, but also in the form of background analysis or behind-the-scenes issues. The local media occasionally run features on peacekeeping where Winnipeg-based troops are involved. But nowhere does the amount of attention devoted to the United Nations amount to even a tiny fraction of the coverage of petty crime or the exotica of so-called human interest stories. For everyone who can identify Boutros Boutros Ghali there are probably a thousand who keep up to date on Madonna or Garth Brooks.

The result of this neglect is that, while most people probably think that the United Nations is a good thing, if they think about it all, there is no sustained or committed public support for the organization that is anywhere organized enough for politicians to have to take into account. If it were not for the dedicated work of the volunteers of the United Nations Association, almost nothing would be done. It is not uncommon when we look back at or read about the locust years of the 1930's to lament that the League of Nations was not taken more seriously. If only, we say, the League had responded seriously to Japan's invasion of Manchuria, or Italy's occupation of Abyssinia, or Hitler's various aggressions. If only the governments of the day (including Canada's) had not worked so determinedly to hedge and limit the League's powers and make sure it was by and large helpless. It seems increasingly probable that the generations to come will utter the same "if only" when they look back at us. If only they had given the United Nations more power. If only they had taken seriously its attempt to resolve the competing tensions of environmental protection and economic development. If only they had listened to the appeals of the United Nations to end the poverty of the developing world. And, in all these cases, the "they" refers to us, living now in the 1990's.

As social studies, history and geography teachers, should we not take the United Nations more seriously? Should we not systematically incorporate it into our teaching? Should we not ensure that, before they leave us and become voting citizens, our students have learned something about the issues involved, and, more important, have given some thought to them.

United Nations Day, October 24 every year, is a good place to start. Why not do something to mark the event? Why not a visiting speaker? Why not a school-wide ceremony or student conference? Why not at least a classroom lesson or two? And beyond this, why not a sustained and systematic treatment of the topic in our courses?

> The driving force that makes either war or peace is engendered where the young are taught. The teacher, whether mother, priest or schoolmaster, is the real maker of history; rulers, statesmen and soldiers do but work out the possibilities of cooperation or conflict the teacher creates.
>
> *H.G. Wells*
> ***The Salvaging of Civilization** (1921), p.39.*

Sure Could Use a Little Good News Today!

Manitoba Social Science Teachers' Assoc. Inc.

October 22, 1993

J. H. Bruns Collegiate
250 Lakewood Dr.
St. Boniface

Manitoba Social Science Teachers' Association

PROGRAM

8:00-9:00	*Publishers' Displays, Registration*
9:00 - 10:00	*Keynote Address*
10:00 -10:30	*Coffee/Publishers' Displays*
10:30-11:30	*Morning Sessions (B)*
11:30 -1:30	*Luncheon on own arrangements*
1:30-3:30	*Afternoon sessions (C) / Displays*

Note the levels are implied in:

E - Elementary
JH - Junior High
SH - Senior High
G - General and combinations thereof.

"Sure Could Use a Little Good News Today!"

featuring a keynote address by

Dr. Tim Ball

Noted Geography Professor, and Journalist on Radio and TV.

Is There Any Good News on the Environment?
Are we giving in to environmental hysteria? There are dangers of people becoming convinced that there is no future. Misinformation, misunderstanding, and proselytizing in the classroom are creating a climate of despair. There is a growing need for a more balanced, positive approach. This is not to deny a need to change, but we are in danger of losing opportunities for change, as dire predictions turn out to be incorrect.

General Session 9:00 - 10:00 a.m.
Gymnasium. Keynote Speaker

SESSIONS B 10:30 - 11:30 a.m.

Note: all sessions 25 max. capacity

MS-BE-1 Agriculture, Food and You- Agricultural Resources for Your Classroom. Shelley Curé
Agriculture in the Classroom. Come and play the Manitoba Safari Board game that will enable students to learn all about agriculture and food safety in Manitoba.
LEVEL: Gr. 1-6.

MS-BE-2 Social Studies & Cooperative Learning Jennifer Fraser, St. James - Assiniboia.
Using ideas and practical strategies for using Cooperative Learning in the Teaching of Social Studies.
LEVEL: Gr. K-6.

MS-BE-3 Multiculturalism in the Classroom, Sophia de Witt, St. James- Assiniboia.
Ideas and strategies to allow teachers to integrate multiculturalism in the Grade 4 & 5 social studies programs.

MS-BE-4 Teaching Sustainable Development in the Early Years Dr. Fred Drewe, Faculty. of Education, U. of M.
An activities based workshop on how to introduce sustainable development across the K-4 curriculum.

MS-BE-5 Storylining in Grade 5 Social Studies. Linda McDowell, Social Studies Consultant, Winnipeg S. Div. #1.
A demonstration of a strategy for integrating LA, Art and Social Studies in Gr. 5 by using the Atlantic Unit. Suggested unit plan and a list of resources will be presented.

MS- BE-6 40,000 Years of Canadian History in 10 Months- How to Cope with the Gr. 6 Curriculum. Alan Mason, Dieppe School.
A practical approach to the topic.
LEVEL: Gr. 6

MS-BE-6 Preparing K-6 Students for Manitoba's 125th Anniversary. Glenda Peterson.
Dugald Costume Museum. A workshop on how to make sunbonnets, pinafores, vests and ties as worn at least 100 years ago. Patterns will be created. Educators, wearing museum gloves, may investigate artifacts from circa 100 years ago, in loanable educases.

MS-BG-1 Keynote Follow-up. Dr. T. Ball, Geog. Dept. University of Winnipeg.
Questions and Answers session.

MS-BG-2 Sustainable Development- Trapping. Corky Peterson, Man Trappers' Assoc.
An opportunity to examine the aspects of a resource that was a major part of development of our country, and its current and future management.

MS-BJHSH-1 The RCGS/NGS Canada-wide Geography Project. Dick Mansfield, Faculty of Education, Queen's University.
This session will outline the nature of the recently announced Canada-wide project sponsored by The Royal Canadian Geographical Society and the National Geographic Society. Participants will receive information on the planned projects, on the 1993 Geography Awareness Week, student contests and summer institutes for teachers. Local input will be sought.

MS-BJHSH-2 The Elmwood Tall-Grass Prairie, Applied Geography. Anne Monk and Kim Tyson, Winnipeg S.D. #1.
This session will go over the opportunity for a hands-on activity-based curriculum in your school yard. A similar field project would assist your Grade 10 geography students to understand their local ecosystem and the stewardship of endangered species.

MS-BSH-1 Seeds of Survival., Survival of Seeds- Food for thought- From Ethiopia to Canada. Friederike Knabe, USC Canada.
Discussion of global food and environment issues with emphasis on biodiversity, agricultural practices in Ethiopia and their importance to the Canadian food supply.

MS-BSH-2 Environmental Ethics, Dr. Grant Cosby, Philosophy Dept., University of Manitoba.
In this session will be examined the ethical dimensions of environmental problems and decisions.

MS-BSH-3 Recent Research in Ukrainian History, Dr. Stella Hryniuk, History Dept., University of Manitoba.
As a specialist in Canadian-Ukrainian history, she will provide and overview of recent historical research on the role of Ukrainian immigrants and settlers, especially in Western Canada.

MS-BSH-4 Introduction to the Historical Atlas of Canada. Vol. 1 And the Native Peoples of Canada. Dr. Wayne Moodie, Geog. Dept., University of Manitoba.
As an active researcher in the preparation of the Historical Atlas, Dr. Moodie will give an insider's view for teachers of Canadian History and Geography, with a focus on Native History.

MS-BSH-5 Regionalism as a Factor in Canadian History and Politics, Dr. Gerry Friesen, History Dept., University of Manitoba.
This will be an exploration of the concept of regionalism and its influence on Canadian history and politics, with reference to the government and prairie sections of the Grade 11 Canadian History course.

MS-BSH-6 Teaching Women's History, Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofre, Faculty. of Education, University of Manitoba.
As an active historian in South America and Canada, she will examine recent developments in women's history and what is involved in teaching it.

MS-BSH-7 Geography and the Shaping of the Prairie Landscape. Dr. Barry Kaye, Geog. Dept., University of Manitoba.
An examination of the major elements in the man-made landscapes

of Canada's Prairie-Parkland region, with emphasis for Grade 10 and 11 teachers.

MS-BSH-8 Clues in the Clothes, Prof C. Clayton-Gouthro, University of Manitoba.
Old and not so old photographs of people contain clues which enable us to determine the date of the photo. Clothing is an important site for examining these clues- but they must be looked at carefully.

BSH-9 Writing the History of Canada Dr. Jack Bumstead, History Dept., University of Manitoba.
As an extensive writer on Canadian history, and author of a recent two-volume history of Canada, he will describe what is involved in synthesizing and teaching Canadian history.

11:30 - 1:30 Luncheon Time
Your own arrangements

Afternoon Sessions C
1:30 - 3:30 p.m.

MS-CE-1 Agriculture, Food and You- Agricultural Resources for Your Classroom Shelley Curé.
Agriculture in the Classroom. Come and play the Manitoba Safari Board game that will enable students to learn all about agriculture and food safety in Manitoba.

MS-CE-2 The Forks Edukit. Linda McDowell, Wpg. #1 and Linda Sutterlin-Duguid, Canadian Parks Service.
A workshop to allow teachers to work through the components of the Forks Edukit, produced by Winnipeg School Division #1 and The Canadian Parks Service. There are 16 English kits and 9 French kits for loan.

MS-CG-1 Water, The Resource of the 21st Century. Dr. Tim Ball, Geog. Dept., University of Winnipeg.
A provincial, federal and continental update on this important topic.

MS- CG-2 The Heritage Fair - Preparations for 1995. Doug Taylor , Kelvin High, and Committee.
A workshop on strategies and projects that could be incorporated into a Heritage Fair, based on the experiences of May 12, 1993.

MS-CJH-1 The Canadian Heritage Project - "We Are Canadians" - not just another history class! Dick Mansfield, Faculty of Education, Queen's University, Kingston.
This hands-on session will provide participants with an opportunity to experience selected strategies from this kit. The materials focus on people who have made Canada their home at various time periods in our nation's history. The strategies are student-centred, resource-based with a strong problem-solving, decision-making focus.
LEVEL Gr 7-9

MS-CJH-2 From Caves to Condominiums in One Afternoon.- M. Mackay, D. Hodgson, L. Bilon-Bulka, Gr. 8 Teacher's Guide Committee.
Is your classroom suffering from historical jetlag? Are they confused about B.C., A.D. B.C.E., U.N. and A&W? Do you struggle each year to finish the Romans, the Renaissance or the Reformation? Come and join our economy class flight through the new teacher's guide for *People Through the Ages*.

MS-CSH-1 Seeds of Survival., Survival of Seeds- Food for thought- From Ethiopia to Canada, Friederike Knabe, USC Canada.
Discussion of global food and environment issues with emphasis on biodiversity, agricultural practices in Ethiopia and their importance to the Canadian food supply. (Repeat of BSH-1)

MS-CSH-2 Teaching for Critical Thinking Dr. Jack Bailey, Philosophy Dept., University of Manitoba.
He will examine what we mean by critical thinking and what we can do to promote critical thinking in students.

MS-CSH-3 Aboriginal Self-Government Dr. Fred Shore, Dept. of Native Studies, University of Manitoba.
He will explore the concept of aboriginal self-government and its implications for all Canadians. A session of special interest to Canadian history teachers.

MS-CSH-4 The Place of Ethics in Today's World, Prof. A. Schafer, Centre for Professional & Applied Ethics, University of Manitoba.
He will explore the way in which ethical considerations bear upon the conditions of modern life, particularly in the political and economic aspects.

MS- CSH-5 Terrorism - Past and Present, Dr. Peter St. John, Political Studies Dept., University of Manitoba.
An exploration of the concept of terrorism and its political use, especially in recent history.

MS-CSH-6 Collapse of Communism & the Future of Socialism, Dr. M. Gabbert, History Dept., University of Manitoba.
He will explore the historical background of the recent collapse of Communist regimes in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, and consider the likely future role of socialism as a social theory and political movement.

MS- CSH-7 Planning & Organizing the Grade 10 Geography. Richard Harbeck, Faculty. of Education, University of Manitoba.
A positive alternate strategy to dealing with "non-streamed" classrooms.

MS-CSH-8 Grappling with the Greenhouse Effect in the Classroom, Dr. Alan Catchpole, Geog. Dept., University of Manitoba.
So often the media presents very simple terms- Carbon dioxide being added to the atmosphere traps the sun's heat, causing warming and ice sheet melting, etc. . We need to have our students go beyond the sequence of statements to see that this is a potentially serious environmental problem, with great uncertainty. A class exercise will be suggested to allow students to appreciate this uncertainty themselves.

MS-CSH-9 A Layperson's Guide to the Deficit and the National Debt, Dr. Norman Cameron, Dept. of Economics, University of Manitoba.
Most of us are not economists but must teach about economic issues. Dr. Cameron will examine the issue of the deficit and the extent to which the national debt creates a problem. There will be an historical perspective as well as what can and should be done about it.

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PUBLISHERS' DISPLAY

Registration time, coffee breaks, and lunch time have been scheduled to provide opportunities to examine new resource material presented by Canadian Publishers and Publishers' Representatives.

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Heritage Fair

Earlier this year, on May 12, Manitoba Day, some 5,000 students attended the province's first Heritage Fair, held at the Convention Centre in Winnipeg. Almost two years in the planning, the Fair was the work of a dedicated and enthusiastic group of teachers, and was made possible by a generous supporting grant from the CRB Foundation of Montreal and by services and prizes provided by Air Canada, Canada Post, the Manitoba Historical Society, Mediacom, BCG Promotions, CKND-TV, Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Citizenship and MSSTA.

The main purposes of the Fair were to heighten awareness of Canadian heritage, both among students and the public at large, and to create an exciting learning environment for students of history and social studies. On both counts, the Fair was highly successful.

Students from Grade 5 to Grade 12 were invited to participate in the Fair in any one of four categories: (1) visual arts; (2) performing arts; (3) written essays and reports; and (4) models and other three-dimensional products. All four categories received a good response, with a total of some 1,600 students actually being involved in producing something for the Fair.

Those who were present at the Convention Centre on May 12

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May 12, 1993

can testify to the enthusiastic response that the Fair generated. As noted, it is estimated that some 5,000 students visited the Fair and throughout the day there was an air of considerable excitement.

A large amount of floor-space was devoted to student exhibits, resulting in an impressive and colourful display of a wide variety of student work: essays and reports, often involving original research; pictures and charts; quilts, maps and diagrams. In addition, there were models of all kinds, including an impressive scaled-down replica of the Nonsuch, a pioneer village, dolls and puppets, collections of artifacts and many historical replicas. In separate rooms there were continuing displays of students' work in the production of audio and video materials, and performances of plays, debates and dances.

As well as all the students' work, there were also displays by various groups with an interest in heritage, including the Mounted Police, the Air Force, the *Winnipeg Free Press*, the Labour Education Centre, the Dugald Costume Museum, Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Citizenship, Children of the Earth School, and others. The overall result was a colourful and interesting panorama of a variety of aspects of Manitoba's heritage.

In addition to the displays, the Fair included a series of workshops for students that ran throughout the day and that were all well received and well-attended.

The Fair got off to a first-rate start, being officially opened by His Honour Yvon Dumont, the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba. Greetings were also brought by Mr. Tom Axworthy of the CRB Foundation, whose support was crucial to making the Fair a reality; by Mr. Harry Enns, representing the provincial government; and by Mr. Doug Taylor of Kelvin High School, who had worked diligently as chairperson of the Organizing Committee and as President of the Manitoba Historical Society. Upon the foundation of this impressive beginning, the Fair continued to operate at a high level of interest and involvement throughout the day.

It was especially encouraging to see the Lieutenant-Governor make time in his schedule, not merely to open the Fair, but to visit it thoroughly and take it seriously. He told the *Free Press* that it was "a wonderful event" and that he was particularly encouraged by the emphasis on Métis history that he found in many of the students' projects.

Sincere thanks are due to all those whose support, work and interest not only made the Fair possible, but also made it so successful. For a first-ever event, the results were very impressive and it is to be hoped that there will be other heritage fairs in the future. 1995 will be the 125th anniversary of the founding of Manitoba: what better year could there be for building on the achievements of May 12, 1993? Those teachers who were unable to take part in this year's Heritage Fair missed a great event; be sure not to miss the next one.

The United Nations and International Peace and Security: Some teaching notes and activities

Ken Osborne

This article was originally written as part of a text book on war and peace in the modern world. In the event, the book never was published, and so this section of it is offered here in revised and updated form. It is aimed primarily at senior years students and includes questions and activities. Its overall purpose is (1) to introduce students to selected approaches to world peace and security; (2) to describe the United Nations in this wider context; and (3) to help students think about the issues involved.

Introduction to students

The pages that follow are intended to introduce you to some of the key questions facing today's world concerning world peace and security. It is no secret that the world faces many serious problems: hunger, poverty, pollution, violations of human rights, war, and on and on. It is also no secret that if those problems are to be tackled successfully the world must act together. No one country can handle them on its own. And, increasingly, problems in one part of the world create problems elsewhere. In today's world, there is literally no place to hide.

However, as serious as the problems are, they can be dealt with if enough people have the interest and the commitment. There are lots of good ideas around, and all kinds of organizations, both private and governmental, that are working on the problems we face. These pages deal with only one of these organizations: the United Nations. The United Nations is much in the news these days but many people do not know all that much about it. As a result of reading these pages, you should end up knowing more about the United Nations and, more important, having some ideas of your own about it.

Specifically, as a result of reading these pages, you should be able to:

1. Describe the various approaches to questions of international order, especially treaties and negotiations; arbitration; collective security; world law; world government.
2. Describe the history of the League of Nations and explain the reasons for its failure.
3. Describe the history and the working of the United Nations.
4. Analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the United Nations.
5. Decide to what extent the United Nations has been a success or a failure.
6. Decide whether or not national governments should give up some of their power to some kind of international authority.
8. Decide how ordinary people (including yourself) can have any influence on the issues discussed here.
9. Decide what, if anything, you personally are going to do.

These nine points tell you what I hoped you would get out of what I have written here. There will probably be a lot of other things also. Remember that what you are going to read is only a summary of some very complex problems. Ideally, you will come up with your own answers.

International Cooperation

The solution of the world's problems obviously depends on some form of international cooperation. Unless governments are totally unable to fight, war is always possible. Even if they agree not to fight, they can still break their word.

Governments possess **sovereignty.** This means they enjoy the right to existence, to equality with other governments, to independence, to protection of their territory and to take any action they think necessary to protect these rights. When governments deal with each other, there is no system of law to control them and no international police force. In international affairs, governments have the right to do whatever they think is necessary for their own protection.

By contrast, when individuals disagree, there is a system of law, courts and police to make sure they settle their differences peacefully and to punish them if they do not. The

concept of the rule of law means that even governments are supposed to follow the law when they deal with their own people. The law provides a system of rules which are supposed to guarantee fairness and justice and to make it possible for people to live in peace with each other. Throughout the world, most people value law and order.

However, what is true within the borders of a country does not apply to international politics, where governments are free to act as they wish. Some people have described this state of affairs as international anarchy or lawlessness.

This is why governments arm themselves. They take the view that the only way to be safe is to be strong, either independently or through allying with other governments. However, even this may not offer complete safety and it can be both risky and expensive. Alliances can cause wars as well as prevent them as governments prepare for the worst.

Thus, many attempts have been made to avoid war through **treaties and agreements**. In the 20th century, these have been accompanied by attempts at **collective security**, first through the League of Nations and then through the United Nations. There are also plans and proposals to go beyond this to a system of **world law** and, most far-reaching of all, of **world government**.

Treaties and Agreements

For centuries, governments have signed **treaties** or **agreements** to work together for certain purposes or to promise that they would not do certain things. For instance, governments might agree to cooperate on common problems, such as rivers or railroads that cross their borders, on deporting criminals, on immigration, and so on.

Such agreements can be important in creating an atmosphere of trust and cooperation and in preventing armed conflict. When governments trust each other, for example, they are more likely to settle their disagreements peacefully. After the Second World War, a French statesman, Jean Monnet, played a major part in convincing politicians and industrialists that rivalry between France and Germany had produced two disastrous world wars in the twentieth century. The only sure way to prevent any future war was through cooperation, not conflict or military power.

Monnet's plan was to link together the French and German coal and steel industries so closely that they could never be separated, thus making it impossible for the two countries to fight each other. This union of French and German coal and steel attracted other countries such as Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands and in 1952 the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was formed. The success of the ECSC served as a practical demonstration of the value of international cooperation and led to the formation of the European Community which now includes nearly all the countries of Western Europe and is seen by some people as the beginning of a United States of Europe.

The economic links among the countries of the European Community make it very unlikely that they will ever go to war with each other, since their economies are so closely interconnected. They have become interdependent. Thus, agreements that have nothing specifically to do with war and peace can, nonetheless, lead to peace and cooperation.

International agreements can, of course, deal with war and peace directly. Governments can agree not to put weapons into a certain area, as in the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817, which banned warships from using the Great Lakes. They can promise not to attack each other and to settle disagreements peacefully. In 1871, for example, Canada and the U.S.A. agreed to settle a dispute over the ownership of San Juan Island by accepting the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany. Again, in 1988, France and Canada agreed to settle a dispute about fishing rights off Newfoundland by referring the problem to a neutral mediator.

Another form of international agreement is the promise not to use certain types of weapons, such as poison gas. There are also international agreements not to place nuclear weapons in space, in the Antarctic and in South America.

The main weakness of all such agreements is that there is nothing to stop a government from breaking them. Sometimes a government might decide that a particular agreement is no longer in its interest, as in 1941 when Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union despite having signed a non-aggression pact. Sometimes a government might take desperate action in defense of its interests, as when Japan launched a surprise attack on the U.S. fleet at Pearl Harbor in 1941.

The fact that agreements can be so easily broken has meant that governments are usually very careful in signing them. Governments do not easily give up their freedom of action. Thus, most agreements have a set time-limit, after which they can be scrapped or renewed. Many agreements also specifically exclude things which governments consider very important to them. At the turn of the century, for example, many treaties provided for **arbitration**, which was a process by which two countries with a disagreement could ask a neutral government to settle their problems by coming to an impartial decision. Peace activists at the time were overjoyed by this method of dealing with disputes, which they saw as a civilized alternative to war. In reality, however, governments were willing to submit only minor matters to arbitration; anything which might affect national security was excluded.

Because of these considerations, a common form of agreement is one which aims not so much to prevent war as to gain maximum protection should war occur. For example, in 1949, Canada, the U.S.A., and some of the countries of Western Europe formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization to protect themselves against the possibility of Soviet attack. In NATO, the countries agree that an attack on any

one of them will be seen as an attack on all of them. Thus, for example, the U.S.A. is pledged to treat an attack on tiny Luxembourg as though the U.S.A. itself were under attack. In this way, Canada and Western Europe get the military protection of the United States.

Critics of **military alliances** such as NATO argue that they make war more rather than less likely. They lead to the creation of military blocs which create hostility and suspicion. They lead to arms races as each alliance seeks to overtake its rivals. They risk turning a small and otherwise unimportant dispute into a major crisis by involving many countries.

Despite such criticisms, military alliances have been common throughout history. They represent a form of international cooperation which has been more influential than treaties to limit or eliminate war. They are based on the argument that, since war is always possible, it is best to be prepared for it. In the nuclear age, the question is whether treaties of any sort can be relied on to keep the peace since nuclear weapons, even if they were abolished, can never be disinvented. Treaties can create a spirit of trust and cooperation but they can also be broken.

Activities/Questions

1. What are the main differences between agreements made between individuals and those made between governments?
2. What is meant by the term "international anarchy"?
3. What are the main features of national sovereignty?
4. Present as many arguments as you can a) for and b) against treaties as a way of preventing war.
5. Which arguments do you find most convincing? Why?
6. Explain the strengths and weaknesses of arbitration as a means of settling international disputes.
7. What in your opinion can be done to make international treaties and agreements as strong as possible?

Collective Security

For the most part, governments sign treaties in order to protect themselves. They are interested not so much in the peace of the world as in their own needs. In fact, treaties can cause wars even when they are intended to prevent them. In the years before the First World War, for example, Germany, Austria and Italy joined together in the Triple Alliance for their own protection. But instead of preserving peace, the Triple Alliance frightened France, Russia and Britain, who formed a rival alliance system against it. Over the years, the mistrust and suspicion between the two alliances increased until a minor crisis led them into all-out war.

After the horror and destruction of the First World War many people felt that peace could not be kept simply by treaties and agreements. If World War I was to be "the war that ends war," as many hoped, something more than agreements would be needed. So long as governments kept the right to go to war when they thought it necessary, no one could be truly safe. What was needed was a system by which governments would not be able to make war and by which they would be prevented if they tried. Governments must give up some of their sovereignty, notably the right to make war, but they would do this only if they could be convinced that they were absolutely safe from attack. All governments would have to give up some of their power if everyone was to feel safe. They would do this, however, only if they could be sure that no other government could successfully attack them.

This idea was known as **collective security**, meaning that all governments were collectively responsible for each other's security. The main points were these:

- everyone everywhere had an interest in peace;
- governments should promise not to go to war;
- governments should therefore give up the armed forces that made it possible to fight wars;
- there should be an international peace force with the power to stop any government that tried to break the peace.

Collective security obviously could not be left to chance. It needed an organization to make it work. Detailed agreements would have to be worked out among governments. Regular meetings would be needed. A permanent staff would be necessary. Someone would have to control the international peace force. Thus was created in 1919 the world's first attempt at organized collective security: the **League of Nations**.

The basic principle of the League of Nations was that war was wrong and must be prevented. It worked on the assumption that any war, or even threat of war, concerned all members of the League. Thus, the countries that belonged to the League all promised to respect each other's independence and territory. To make war less likely, they promised to reduce armaments "to the lowest point consistent with national safety" and to share all information about any developments of military significance. They also said that an attack on any member of the League would be treated as an attack on everyone. They promised to settle disputes peacefully and to help in this process they established a Permanent Court of International Justice. If, despite all this, a country began a war anyway, all the League members promised to organize sanctions against it. Sanctions involved a total boycott of all trade, communications, travel or any other form of contact, so that the country concerned would be totally isolated. This, it was thought, would

quickly stop any aggressor with a minimum of violence. If even this did not work, the League was authorized to raise an international army from member governments and to use force against an aggressor.

In order to make all this possible, the League of Nations was created as a permanent organization with its own staff in order to ensure that international cooperation and peace would be permanently maintained.

Despite all its work, the League failed and by the mid-1930's major wars were occurring around the world. Japan conquered Manchuria in 1931 and ignored the League's condemnation. Italy did the same in Ethiopia in 1935. In 1937 Japan invaded China, and in 1939 Germany attacked Poland. The Second World War had begun and the League was helpless.

There are some obvious reasons for the League's failure. The U.S.A. never joined it. In its early years, the Soviet Union was not a member, nor were the countries that had been defeated in World War I, particularly Germany. The League was seen by some governments not as an impartial vehicle for world peace, but as a means of ensuring that the countries that had won the First World War, and were largely satisfied with their position in the world, could prevent anyone else from challenging them.

Perhaps the most damaging weakness of the League, however, was that governments never gave it their full support. They saw the League not so much as a way of preventing war, but as a way of pursuing their own interests. They supported the League when it suited them but not when it did not.

In particular, they opposed the idea of having to support the League to prevent wars in which they had no involvement. The Canadian government particularly objected to this aspect of the League. Canada felt safe. No one was likely to attack it and it had no wish to attack anyone else. Why should Canada have to raise taxes or send troops anywhere in the world just because the League said so?

This attitude to the League was widely shared. It meant that when certain governments deliberately set out on a policy of aggression and conquest in the 1930's, the League was powerless. Seeing this, governments abandoned any thought of relying on the League and instead turned to the more traditional ways of defending themselves through arms build-ups and alliances.

Public opinion was unable to influence governments. All through the 1920's and into the 1930's there was much public support for the League. Schools taught their students about it. Newspapers and radio gave the League a good deal of publicity. A Canadian newspaper, the *Winnipeg Free Press*, and its editor John Dafoe, became known internationally for its arguments supporting the League. Many groups and organizations worked energetically for what they called the League idea. All this support, however, had little impact on governments. Governments for the most part saw public opinion as uninformed and emotional. More important, they were unwilling to run the risks that they saw involved in making the League work.

Despite the collapse of the League, people came to realize in the Second World War that it was an experiment that had to be repeated. By the end of the Second World War, and especially after the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, there was a widespread feeling that war was now so horrible that it could no longer be tolerated. In the nuclear age, collective security seemed to offer the only hope. A stronger version of the League of Nations was needed and thus the victorious powers in 1945 established the **United Nations Organization.**

Once again, governments promised to renounce war, to reduce armaments, to work together to keep the peace throughout the world, and to settle disputes peacefully. Learning from the mistakes of the League, the shapers of the United Nations were determined to make it a success. In addition, unlike the League, the United Nations was expected to deal, not only with issues of war and peace, but with economic and social issues also.

Although the United Nations was largely the work of the Big Three who won the Second World War - Britain, the U.S.A., and the Soviet Union - Canada played an important part in its creation. The Canadian government saw in the United Nations a way of avoiding having to choose sides between the two superpowers and a hope of ensuring a truly peaceful world. However, the United Nations was overtaken by the Cold War between the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. and their supporters. Both sides used it to score points against their opponents rather than as a way to settle their differences. Like the League, the United Nations became the victim of governments who were not willing to give up any of their powers, especially as the world became increasingly divided and war a real possibility.

The great powers had from the beginning made sure that they would not be dictated to by the United Nations. They kept the right to veto any decision involving United Nations' action to ensure peace and security. They did this by including in the United Nations Charter a rule that all such decisions had to be unanimously approved by all five great powers - the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., Britain, China and France. Canada opposed this rule on the grounds that it would cripple the United Nations, but accepted it when it seemed that without it the great powers might well not join the United Nations at all.

The United Nations and Peacekeeping

Despite the veto, the United Nations was able to act in various crises to prevent or limit war and **peacekeeping** became an important part of its work. In 1948, for example,

the United Nations sent observers to the Middle East and to Kashmir to supervise cease-fires and to reduce tension. In 1950, the United Nations became directly involved in the Korean War. When war broke out between North and South Korea the U.S.A. took the issue to the United Nations which authorized sending an international army to help South Korea defend itself. This army was largely made up of U.S. and South Korean troops and was commanded by U.S. officers, but it was officially a United Nations force and Canada and other countries contributed troops.

Perhaps the most successful example of United Nations peacekeeping occurred in 1956 when Israel, France and Britain attacked Egypt. The Soviet Union announced its support for Egypt and it seemed that a world war was possible. To solve the crisis, Canada's Minister of External Affairs, Lester Pearson, suggested that a United Nations peacekeeping force be sent to Egypt to separate the warring armies and allow them to pull back from the war zone. Canada's offer to send combat troops was refused, but Canadian supply and service units played a vital part in the operation of the United Nations Emergency Force. The fighting stopped and a major war was prevented. The United Nations had achieved a major success. For his work, Lester Pearson was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize and Canada gained a reputation as a major supporter of United Nations peacekeeping work.

However, the United Nations' success was possible only because neither the U.S.A. nor the U.S.S.R. wanted the crisis to lead to a wider war. When either of them opposed United Nations involvement the United Nations was helpless. Thus, it could do little or nothing about U.S. involvement in Vietnam or at first about Soviet involvement in Afghanistan.

In other cases, however, the United Nations was able to take action. In 1988, for example, United Nations negotiations and discussions helped to bring an end to a long and bloody war between Iran and Iraq. In that same year, when the Soviet Union decided it could not continue its military intervention in Afghanistan, the United Nations was very much involved in the negotiations that led to Soviet withdrawal.

In 1990, the United Nations actually went to war. When Iraq refused to obey a United Nations order to end its occupation of Kuwait, the United Nations authorized the use of military force against Iraq. This led to the Gulf War, in which Iraq suffered heavy damage. However, although this was officially a military action of the United Nations, most of the fighting was done by the United States and its allies. Critics accused the United States of using the United Nations for its own purposes. On the other hand, supporters of the military action said that the United Nations could not allow any country to occupy another, as Iraq did in the case of Kuwait, and had to be ready to use force if its decisions were ignored.

During its existence, the United Nations has from time to time become actively involved in various trouble-spots around the world. It is currently involved (1993) in Somalia, Cambodia, and the former Yugoslavia. Its mission in Somalia and the former Yugoslavia is to try to keep the peace, to provide emergency aid [food, medical supplies, and so on], and to establish conditions that will make it possible for local people to rebuild their countries. It is important to remember that the United Nations forces are involved in **peace-keeping**, not **peace-making**. This means that they can only try to persuade people to stop fighting, and can only respond to other people's actions. For example, United Nations peacekeeping troops are only allowed to open fire in self-defence; they cannot begin shooting in order to establish peace and order. In civil wars, where people's passions often run very deep, and where long-established hatreds and suspicions are deep-rooted, it is very difficult for the United Nations to be successful. Some people argue that in places like Bosnia or Somalia the United Nations should be prepared to use overwhelming fire-power in order to establish its authority. Other people disagree, arguing that such a policy could kill many innocent people and, in any case, would not solve the underlying problems. Moreover, countries with troops in the United Nations forces [including Canada] are not enthusiastic about putting their lives at risk in quarrels that have nothing to do with their own countries. It is unlikely that any country would be willing to send its troops on United Nations peacekeeping missions if it thought that a lot of them might be killed or wounded.

Originally, the United Nations was supposed to have its own armed forces, so that it would not have to rely on the goodwill of governments. In 1945 there was even a suggestion that the United Nations should have a monopoly on nuclear weapons. However, it seems that few, if any, countries are happy at the thought of the United Nations becoming an independent military power, able to act as a world police force. Governments see this as a threat to their sovereignty. As a result, the United Nations has to rely on member-countries supplying military units on request for United Nations' duties. Canadian personnel have served on every United Nations peacekeeping force from the very beginning. As valuable as they are, however, such forces do face difficult problems. As already mentioned, as peacekeepers, they are not allowed to use force, except in extreme self-defence.

The nature of the United Nations system means that peacekeeping forces are made up of contingents from many different countries, thus creating difficulties of language, communication, equipment, supplies and so on. Moreover, since the United Nations has never been allowed to have its own armed forces, it has no continuing system of military command and expertise. By the early 1990's some experts

were suggesting that the demands on the United Nations made it more necessary than ever for it to have its own military force under its own command. They suggested that the United Nations should be allowed to recruit, train and command a force of international volunteers, whose only loyalty would be to the United Nations. Thus, these volunteers would become a truly international army. Such suggestions, however, have not yet received the support of any governments.

The United Nations and Disarmament

Throughout its history, the United Nations has also been concerned with disarmament. The members of the United Nations have all promised to settle disputes peacefully and to respect international peace and security. The Charter of the United Nations declared that the U.N. should prepare a plan for the regulation of armaments. However, the mutual suspicions of the superpowers, which came to a head in the Cold War, ensured that nothing was done. Neither the United States nor the Soviet Union were prepared to trust each other or to place much faith in the United Nations. Thus in 1952 when the United Nations established a Disarmament Commission, it was limited to discussion only. In 1961, partly in response to international public opinion, the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. agreed to co-chair a United Nations Disarmament Committee but it was able only to issue declarations. Both superpowers used it primarily to discuss propaganda points. When they wanted to talk seriously, the superpowers spoke directly to each other and largely ignored the United Nations.

Thus, the United Nations' disarmament activity has been mostly in the form of discussion and declarations. In 1978, 1982 and 1988 the United Nations organized Special Sessions on Disarmament and in 1987 held a Special Session on the connection between disarmament and social and economic development. These sessions did not produce any specific results, but they did have some impact in making disarmament an issue and directing public attention to it. They created a feeling that something should be done to control the arms race, so that at least some governments felt that they had to take some action. In addition to this type of work, the United Nations has also been involved in negotiating the treaties controlling the testing and stationing of nuclear weapons. It is through the United Nations, for example, that the Antarctic has been declared a nuclear-free zone, as has South America and outer space.

Questions and Activities

1. In your own words, explain the idea of collective security.
2. How did the League of Nations and the United Nations embody the principle of collective security?
3. In 1924, the Canadian delegate to the League of Nations said, "In this association of mutual insurance against fire, the risks assumed by the different states are not equal. We live in a fireproof house far from inflammable materials."
   - What was the "fire" to which he refers?
   - How was the League like a mutual insurance company?
   - What did he mean by saying the risks were not equal?
   - Why did he call Canada "a fireproof house..."?
   - What point was he making about Canada's connection with the League?
4. As a supporter of the League of Nations, how would you answer the argument described in question 3?
5. Prepare a research report on any of these topics:
   i. The history of the League of Nations
   ii. Canada's role in the League of Nations
   iii. The Abyssinian (Ethiopian) crisis of 1935 and Canada's part in it.
   iv. Successes and failures of the League.
6. What are the successes and weaknesses of the United Nations in limiting or preventing war?
7. Explain the United Nations' role in disarmament.
8. What can be done to make the United Nations more effective?
9. Prepare a research report on any of these topics:
   i. Canada's record in the United Nations.
   ii. The Suez Crisis of 1956 and the United Nations
   iii. The United Nations and Cyprus
   iv. The United Nations and disarmament.
   v. The United Nations' role in Cambodia.
   vi. The United Nations' role in Bosnia.
   vii. The United Nations' role in Somalia.
10. Prepare a research report on United Nations' peacekeeping.
11. Contact Fort Osborne barracks, or the Air Force base, and arrange for a speaker to come to talk about his or her experience of United Nations' peacekeeping.
12. Write a letter to your Member of Parliament recommending increased support for the United Nations. Be sure to include reasons for your arguments.

The United Nations and Social Justice

Most people agree that the United Nations has been most successful in its work for **social justice**, particularly in helping refugees, in relieving hunger, in improving medical care and living standards, and in protecting human rights. It

is obvious that the world still faces huge problems in all these areas, but, without the work done by the United Nations, things would be much worse. At the very least, the United Nations provides emergency help in times of crises, such as floods, drought, famine and natural disaster. It also supplies, on a continuing basis, basic necessities, such as tents, food, medicine, to refugees and other people in danger. Besides this, the United Nations also helps to draw the world's attention to such problems. This might or might not always help, but at least it makes it more difficult for governments to ignore public opinion. The United Nations also makes it more easily possible for scientists, experts, decision-makers and others to exchange research, to consult with each other and bit by bit to build up the knowledge needed to cope with disasters. Finally, the United Nations establishes basic standards against which a country's policies can be measured, for example in such areas as health care, education, working conditions and so forth. Such United Nations agencies as the World Health Organization (WHO); the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO); the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF); the International Labour Organization (ILO); and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) are all involved in this work.

The United Nations has also been active in defending **human rights**. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 set a standard for the protection of human rights. It is true that many governments in the world still have to live up to their promise to observe the Declaration, but at least there is an internationally agreed set of standards against which a country's human rights record can be measured. As with so much else, it is important to remember that the United Nations has no independent power of its own, nor is it allowed to intervene in the internal affairs of a country. Thus, for example, while the United Nations could and did condemn apartheid in South Africa, there was very little that it could actually do to end it. In many ways, the chief weapons of the United Nations are publicity, information, discussion and public awareness, but these often take a long time to work and even then are not always successful. In June 1993, for example, the United Nations organized a World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, but it achieved little beyond discussion and did not receive all that much attention in the media.

In recent years the United Nations has began to pay more attention to **environmental issues**. Many of these issues are global in nature and can be dealt with only by international action, thus making the United Nations a natural place for tackling them. They also can cause tension between developed and developing countries, since the latter naturally want to develop economically as fast as they can. In their words, the worst environmental problem is poverty and they have far too much of that. In 1987 a United Nations Report called *Our Common Future* identified sustainable development as a major priority for the world. In 1992, a World Conference on Environment and Development was held at Rio de Janeiro, and the countries of the world pledged themselves to find ways of continuing to develop economically while also protecting the environment.

Also in the area of social justice, the United Nations has for many years been involved in issues of **international trade**. It has tried to ensure that countries trade fairly with each other, and particularly that poor countries are not taken advantage of by richer countries. For example, countries that export raw materials and import manufactured goods often find that their imports cost more than they can earn through exports. Thus, they cannot afford to pay for social and economic development. If they borrow money, they often end up heavily in debt. Or, the poverty of their people forces them to do things that damage the environment, as in the case of destroying rain-forests. In ways like these, patterns of world trade can affect the whole world, and the United Nations has long tried to find ways to ensure that trading patterns do good rather than harm.

In the same way, the United Nations has been very involved with helping the **economic development** of the world's poorer countries. It has done this through aid, through the use of experts, through developments in agriculture, education, and so on.

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a research report on the work of United Nations in one of these areas: human rights, refugees, economic development, health, environment, the law of the sea, international trade.
2. Prepare a research report on any one of the agencies of the United Nations, e.g.: UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, ILO, etc., etc.
3. What are the limitations on what the United Nations is able to do about economic and social problems?
4. Do you think the United Nations should have more power? List as many arguments as you can think of ***for*** and ***against*** this idea. Which arguments seem most convincing to you? Why?
5. The United Nations is not allowed to intervene in the domestic or internal affairs of countries. Do you think this is a good thing or not?

Conclusion

Some people, looking at the problems the world faces, conclude that the United Nations has not been much of a success. It has not been able to prevent war, to eliminate

poverty, to protect the environment. All it seems to do, such people say, is talk, talk, talk, spending a lot of money in the process.

Others say that, if it were not for the United Nations, the world's problems would be much worse than they are. They point out that the United Nations has had its successes. It might not have eliminated war in general, but it has prevented or limited specific wars. It might not have eliminated poverty, but it has prevented millions of people from dying of disease or starvation. They also point out that the United Nations has very little power of its own, being only as strong as its member-governments allow it to be. In their view, if the United Nations has problems, the answer is not to abolish it but to make it stronger. What do you think?

World Law

One way to prevent war is to create a system of **world law** that all governments must obey and to deal with the world's problems just as citizens have to obey the laws of the country in which they live. Supporters of world law argue that war is always possible in a state of affairs in which governments are all powerful and where there is no supreme authority to control them.

In this view, the world is like a community where every individual is free to do whatever he or she chooses, where there are no laws of any sort and where there are no police to maintain law and order. No community could exist very long under such conditions. Theft, murder, assault, violence would go unchecked unless people made some agreement about how to govern themselves. This, of course, is where the concept of law comes in, for the law represents the rules under which people live. If people disagree, the law provides a way of settling disputes peacefully. If they want to change the laws, there are ways of doing so. If anyone breaks the law, he or she will be punished.

Nothing like this exists at the world level. The United Nations can do only what governments allow it to do and so it has no power to enforce world law. Indeed world law, in the sense of something that controls governments, simply does not exist. The supporters of world law say that it is urgently needed if war is ever to be abolished. They say that the world needs (1) an agreed system of laws that all governments must obey; (2) a system of courts and judges to interpret and enforce the law; and (3) some kind of international police force to investigate breaches of the law and bring offenders to trial.

This ideal has been criticized as unrealistic. Critics say that there is no reason at all to suppose that governments are prepared to accept it. If they are unwilling to give the United Nations their full support, it is unlikely that they would support something that goes much further. Moreover, say the critics, the practical details of working out an effective system of world law, as opposed to a vague general proposal, are enormous. For example, there are many different systems of law in the world - Western, Soviet, Moslem and so on - and it will be difficult to find one set of laws that will be acceptable to everyone. Again, the practical problems of choosing judges, setting up an international police force and so on will be extremely difficult. Through all these objections runs one common theme: world law is too impractical and unrealistic in the world as it actually exists. If world law is to work, there must be a good deal more goodwill among nations than now exists, but if this goodwill existed, then we would not need world law.

Supporters of world law reject these arguments. They say that in the nuclear age we simply cannot afford not to have world law. The possibility of nuclear destruction is so horrifying that world law is the very least we can accept. Even if nuclear weapons were scrapped, there would always be a chance that someone would make them secretly, so that even nuclear disarmament does not go far enough. Even conventional war is now so destructive that it must be eliminated also. Thus, world law is needed urgently.

Supporters of world law argue that the practical difficulties are not so great that it is an impossible fantasy. It is true that there are many different legal systems in the world but they all have certain common features. For instance, they all forbid killing and violence; they all insist on proof through evidence; they all protect lawful property. Thus, it is not impossible to find a system of law that would be acceptable to all. And, in any case, world law would not be concerned with the behavior of individuals, for each country would keep its own laws for its own citizens. World law would be concerned with the behaviour of governments.

There are, in fact, already many laws which regulate dealings among governments, concerning, for example, such things as the safety of diplomats, the passage of international mail, use of air space, compensation for damage caused to another country's territory or citizens. All such regulations are called international law rather than world law, since they regulate dealings between governments, but do not control what they can do. Nonetheless, some people argue that they form a basis for a true world law and show that governments can agree.

World law, in this view, is not impossible. Over the years many things have been called impractical and utopian: the abolition of slavery, democracy, equality between men and women, freedom of religion - all were once called impossible by people who opposed them. What is preventing world law from becoming reality are not the so-called practical difficulties, but the lack of will-power by governments and the apathy of people in general.

We have, in fact, already made a small beginning, say the supporters of world law. In 1920, as part of the League of Nations, the Permanent Court of International Justice was

established at the Hague. After the Second World War, it was renamed the International Court of Justice, or the World Court. In accepting this court, the world's governments showed that they were at least willing to consider the possibility of world law and to go some way towards implementing it.

The critics, however, point out that the World Court has little real power. It can hear only cases which governments agree to hand over to it and even then governments do not have to accept its verdict. It is as if people charged with a crime could decide whether or not they wanted to go to court and, even if they went, could still decide whether or not to accept the court's judgement. These limitations on the World Court's power, say the critics, show how opposed governments would be to any kind of world law that limited their power.

Questions and Activities

1. What is the difference between international law and world law?
2. Describe the main elements of an effective system of world law.
3. Prepare a report on the working of the International Court of Justice.
4. What do you think should be the main points in a code of world law?
5. Think of as many reasons as you can for (a) agreeing, and (b) disagreeing, with the statement, "world law is the only effective way of ensuring a peaceful world." Which of the reasons seem most convincing to you? Why?

World Government

Some people argue that world law does not go far enough since a world court might not have the power to control or punish a government that was determined to break the law, especially if that government had nuclear weapons. For example, if one country illegally occupied another and then threatened to use nuclear weapons against anyone who challenged it, it could be that the rest of the world would not want to become involved. Moreover, if it is possible to establish a system of world law, it might be possible to go further and create a **world government**.

The basic idea of world government is easy to understand. It calls for one government for the whole world, with power over particular topics, particularly questions of war, peace and weapons. Such a world government would not have power over everything. Countries would still keep their own governments, while the world government would deal with issues that concerned the world as a whole, and especially war and peace. Thus, world government would operate under a federal system, just as Canada does.

The world government would control its own armed forces, to keep the peace and punish aggressors. For example, it might have a monopoly of nuclear weapons, of long-range military aircraft, of ocean-going warships and so on. Roughly speaking, countries would be allowed only such short-range, defensive weapons as would help them protect their borders and maintain internal law and order.

At the same time, the world government would operate under a system of world law so everyone would know what its powers were and whether or not it was acting legally. Without such laws, world government could easily become tyranny, since it alone would possess the weapons and armed forces to impose its will on the world. This, in fact, is one of the most common arguments used against the idea of world government; for it could become a global dictatorship. One of the basic characteristics of democracy is the rule of law: citizens can take their government to court if they think it is acting improperly. But who could force a world government to obey the law?

Defenders of world government have two responses to this argument. One is to admit that the danger exists but to point out that the danger of nuclear disaster is much greater and therefore the risk must be taken. Even a dictatorship would be preferable to destroying the planet. The other response is to argue that the danger of dictatorship is greatly exaggerated and that there are ways to prevent it. For example, many kinds of controls could be placed on the way a world government could operate, just as the Canadian government's powers are limited by the Constitution and the Charter of Rights. Since the world would be governed federally, national governments would keep much of their power and authority, thus eliminating the prospect of global dictatorship.

Many of the arguments raised against world government are similar to those used against world law: for example, it is unrealistic; the world is not ready for it; governments will never accept it. These are many practical difficulties also. For instance, would countries be represented in a world government according to population (which would give countries like China and India great influence) or by economic power (which would benefit Japan and the United States)? Would a world government be elected by the world's people directly or would it be made up of representatives appointed by national governments? How would taxes be paid to the world government? How would its armed forces be recruited and supported? How would the division of power between the world government and national governments be arranged? To take one example, world government would depend on popular support and thus education would be involved: would the world government control what was taught in schools all over the world to ensure they were learning to think as world citizens? There are many specific, difficult questions like these that

have to be dealt with if world government is to exist.

Supporters of world government have responses to these arguments. They insist that the dangers of world government have been greatly exaggerated, as have the difficulties. They point out that many world organizations already work very effectively. Ever since 1874, for example, the Universal Postal Union has been regulating the world's postal services so that mail moves as smoothly as possible all around the world. A letter mailed in Canada, for example, will reach its destination in another country, even though the money used to buy the stamp goes only to the Canadian Post Office. Governments do this because it is in everyone's interest that mail circulates easily around the world and they agree to pay fees to the Universal Postal Union, which then compensates governments for their expenses. It is a large, smooth and largely unnoticed organization. It shows that substantial action is possible on a world scale, especially when one realizes that many such organizations exist, dealing with telephones and telegraphs, aviation, health regulations, police matters, and so on. World government, say its supporters, is not some impossible dream but simply a natural extension of much that is already being done, including the work of the United Nations.

For the supporters of world government, the fundamental problem is the existence of national sovereignty. So long as governments are free to do more or less as they choose, war is always possible, and in the nuclear age the risks are unacceptable. Thus, any attempt to bring about change within the political system will never go far enough. The whole system must be changed if governments are to be prevented from blowing up the world. The question, they say, is not whether we can risk world government but whether we can risk not having it.

Questions and Activities

1. Present as many arguments as you can (a) for, and (b) against, world government. Which seem the most convincing to you? Why?
2. How would the United Nations have to be changed if it were to become a world government?
3. Organize a debate on the topic: world peace can be assured only through an effective world government.
4. Write or contact the World Federalists of Canada and study their materials on world government [the Winnipeg phone number is 772-1404].
5. Prepare a research report on any of these international organizations:
   - Universal Postal Union
   - World Meteorological Organization
   - Food and Agriculture Organization
   - World Health Organization
   - International Telecommunications Union
   - International Labour Organization
   - International Civil Aviation Organization
6. If you had to draw up a plan for world government, what would be your proposals?
7. What is your opinion of H.G. Wells' idea that world government depends upon world-wide education "presenting the same vision of reality"? Design a curriculum for such an education.

The United Nations Unit Outline

The following is an outline of topics and sub-topics only. The references at the end contain enough information to flesh it out. It is offered here in the hope that it might be useful to anyone who wishes to teach a whole unit systematically on the United Nations.

1. Origins of the the United Nations
   - League of Nations 1919 - World War II
   - Impact of World War II
   - San Francisco conference 1945
2. Purposes of the United Nations
   - Prevention of war
   - International co-operation
   - Social and economic development
   - Advancement of Human Rights
3. Organization of the United Nations
   i. **Organizations**
      - General Assembly
      - Security Council
      - International Court of Justice
      - Economic & Social Council
      - Trusteeship Council
      - Secretariat

   ii. Agencies
      - World Health Organization
      - International Labour Organization
      - Food & Agriculture Organization
      - UNICEF
      - UNESCO
      - ICAO
      - Etc.

NOTE: avoid detail. Deal only with duties of each institution, with perhaps an example or two.

4. Activities of the United Nations
   i. **Political Crises**
      - Korea 1950-3
      - Suez 1956
      - Congo 1960-64
      - Cyprus 1964 to present
      - Namibia
      - Iran-Iraq War
      - El Salvador
      - The Gulf War 1990
      - Cambodia
      - Somalia
      - Angola
      - Bosnia

NOTE: avoid detail. Simply explain:

1. What each crisis was about.
2. How the U.N. was involved.
3. Whether the U.N. succeeded or failed.

   ii. **Human Rights**
      - 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights
      - Continuing activities

   iii. **Social & Economic Development**
      - Refugees
      - Health
      - Economic development

   iv. **Decolonization**

   v. **Disarmament**

   vi. **Law of the Sea**

   vii. **Environment**

5. Canada's Contribution to the United Nations
   i. **Peacekeeping**
   ii. **Economic & Social Development**
   iii. **Political Support**
6. Current Problems
   i. **Attitude of great powers**
   ii. **Financial difficulties**
   iii. **Restrictions on U.N. power**
   iv. **Political divisions**

N.B. Don't forget the U.N. Association Office, Earl Grey School, 340 Cockburn, 475-0513

Useful references:

Everyman's United Nations

The United Nations: What It Is & How It Works

L.M. Goodrich: *The United Nations*

E. Luard: *The U.N. - How It Works & What It Does*

H.G. Nicholas: *The U.N. as a Political Institution*

D. Altschiller: *The United Nations' Role in World Affairs*

The U.N. Secretary General : A Profile

Linda Hossie, Globe and Mail Foreign Affairs Reporter

The following article appeared in the ***Globe and Mail*** *on 19 January, 1993. Since we are usually told so little in the media about the United Nations and its work, and since the Secretary-General is an important world figure, the article is reprinted here in the hope that it will be useful to teachers. It should be noted also that the* ***Globe and Mail*** *is unique in Canada for the coverage it gives to the United Nations and its work.*

United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali tackles his job the way a boy with a stick tackles a nest of slumbering wasps. The down-side is that many have been stung, including Mr. Boutros-Ghali. The up-side is that everyone is now awake.

After little more than a year in office, the irrepressible Mr. Boutros-Ghali has made furious enemies, he has made grudging admirers and he has made tracks.

"My feeling is that he wants to make the most out of his tenure," one UN ambassador said. "He is moving quickly. He's trying to drive change and movement."

Clearly the former Egyptian foreign minister, who is widely expected to serve only one five-year term, is a man in a hurry.

The unanswered question in many minds, however, is where is he going?

"We don't talk to him enough to know what his vision is," said Venezuela's UN ambassador, Diego Arria. "You sense that the man is full of intelligence, that's the impression you get, he has a tremendous intellectual vitality. My criticism is that we should share in that more."

The mystification about what, exactly, Mr. Boutros-Ghali wants to achieve has earned the Secretary-General a predictable nickname. "We're headed by a Sphinx now," one UN official said. "He's quite inscrutable."

Mr. Boutros-Ghali took over the job of the UN's chief administrator at a time of great optimism in world affairs. The long Cold War that had frozen international relations into a static superpower standoff was finally over.

The opportunities for democratic change seemed almost limitless.

With the hindsight granted by 12 months of war and chaos, however, it is obvious that communism in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe functioned like a rock weighing down angry nationalism and ethnic hatred. With its oppressive force removed, those passions have broken free. Now, the UN must cope not with democratic opportunity but with war, genocide and a refugee crisis unparalleled since the Second World War.

As a result, the world body is either floundering, if you take the black view, or it is "in a highly formative stage," if you want to take the sunnier view of one diplomat. Either way, there is general agreement with Mr. Arria that "the institution has metal fatigue. It's overloaded and overworked."

It is also drawing wider hostility than it used to. On his recent trip to Yugoslavia and Somalia, Mr. Boutros-Ghali was spat on and booed. How much of that was a reaction to him personally and how much to the UN is a significant question for those who are trying to assess the Secretary-General's impact on the institution.

He is resented in Somalia for his role in Egypt's foreign ministry, which helped arm former dictator Mohammed Siad Barre and which is accused by one of the current warlords, General Mohammed Farrah Aidid, of treating him unfairly in the past.

"That was such a political blunder [to go to Somalia]," one UN official said. "I assume that no one dared to say to him, 'Look, I don't think you should go.'"

The same official said it was scandalous for Mr. Boutros-Ghali to admonish residents of Sarajevo, who have been under siege for months in inhuman conditions of hunger and cold, by pointing out that "I can tell you 10 places that are worse than you."

"I can't imagine that any human being, let alone a UN official, would say that to people who are suffering the way the Bosnians are suffering," the official said:

These stories reflect another characteristic of Mr. Boutros-Ghali that is acknowledged by his friends and foes alike, and that has earned him yet another culturally loaded nickname — the Pharaoh.

His manner is arrogant and brusque, a gutsy attitude for a man who arrived at the UN with some major holes in his knowledge of the place. He is notorious still for an early press conference in which he said Security Council resolutions are not mandatory unless they are made under Chapter 7 of the UN charter, which deals with threats to peace. The UN's own public information handbook, *Basic Facts about the United Nations*, makes it clear that "all members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council."

Unfazed by such early setbacks, Mr. Boutros-Ghali has pressed on, so that as the official said, "very few people dare to speak honestly in his presence."

It is not just his staff who feel the cutting edge of Mr. Boutros-Ghali's personality. The halls of the UN have become the site of a perverse guessing game about which ambassador got shortest shrift from the secretary-general in a personal meeting.

"Apparently the world record is held by the Jamaican permanent representative, who got 45 seconds," one diplomat said.

"The South Korean ambassador got 30 seconds," countered another.

"He can be very intimidating," a senior UN diplomat said. "He doesn't suffer fools gladly and he's very blunt. Therefore, people who are afraid of him will have trouble. You have to be very thick-skinned and confident to deal with him."

It is not just confident people but countries with a confident national image that do well with Mr. Boutros-Ghali.

Representatives of the rich industrial nations are the most tolerant of the Secretary-General's quirks and most optimistic that his tenure will produce good results.

Developing countries take the opposite view. Although he was widely considered to be the African candidate when he was selected for the job, African ambassadors are now among his most implacable enemies. One of his famous dressings down, in fact, had them as its target.

"I think the African group went to see him about something, to ask possibly for more representatives at senior levels," said one observer. "He countered with this comment about them being a useless bunch of sods; a view that is widely held by all the UN."

"He has a big chunk of the Third World against him," the official said. "But the Third World is a bit hapless at the moment, divided and unsure of its role in international institutions."

That is a big change from the days of the Cold War, when the Soviet Union could be counted on to defend the interests of many developing countries as a way to counter U.S. influence around the world.

In those days, people spoke of the Permanent Five members of the UN Security Council — the United States, Britain, France, the Soviet Union and China. Russia has since taken the Soviet seat and China is still a permanent member but people no longer speak of the "Perm Five." Instead, they speak of the "Perm Three" — the United States, Britain and France.

Russia has been very compliant in dealings with the big three powers, as befits a country with an almost insatiable need for investment and economic support. And China "will not oppose the United States on a fundamental policy issue unless the resolution says they're going to attack

China," one official said. The effect in many people's eyes is to create a badly unbalanced UN.

"I don't have any confidence that [Mr. Boutros-Ghali] is the guy to establish the UN as a neutral, fair body," the official said.

Mr. Arria agreed. "Today you notice that there is a very close relationship between the secretariat and the key players," he said. Mr. Boutros-Ghali might not think he needs the other countries, "but the times we're living in demand all the support he can get."

Another ambassador said: "He's the first person from the Middle East who's ever run the UN, and there's a Middle Eastern quality to the way he does it. He comes from a fairly autocratic system where you don't have to consider too many people as long as you're friends with the president."

Mr. Boutros-Ghali has not always had a smooth relationship with the three major powers. In July, he indulged in a very public slanging match with the Security Council over its endorsement of a European Community request that the UN monitor heavy weapons in Bosnia. Recently, he has bullied the United States, with some success, over its reluctance to disarm the warring factions in Somalia.

The Somalia case "is very much to his credit," the official said, "especially given his predecessor, [Javier] Perez de Cuellar, who was a model of caution." But the very success of the Somalia operation — many UN diplomats believe it will provide a model for other interventions — raises new problems for the UN.

"It's inevitable that when [the UN] sends in troops somewhere, it will develop enemies," the official said, "This is where we need to understand what is the UN. Is it going to be like a world power? It's such an enormous step they're taking. There should be a lot of discussion within the house, and there's none."

Mr. Boutros-Ghali has, in fact, started some discussion on these points. His Agenda for Peace is an ambitious outline of peacekeeping and peacemaking possibilities for the UN in the new world order, and he has insisted on the need for UN staff to become a more professional and less political civil service in order to meet the challenges the UN now faces.

The Secretary-General has even committed himself to doing everything he can to have 50 percent women in the UN's upper ranks by 1995, a promise that immediately gave rise to the calculation that about one-third of the existing staff would have to die in the next two years if he is to meet his target.

Not everyone is persuaded by his rhetoric on these points, however, especially since, as a senior official pointed out, "in spite of what he's saying about management, his style is from another era."

At the upper end of the hierarchy, those concerns are small potatoes. "Remember when he was named, and people said, 'He's an older man, an old-style diplomat. Will he be up to the demands of the day?'" one ambassador said. "Well, he's quite capable of thinking new thoughts, of challenging. On the whole, I would say it's better to have someone like him who's not trying to be popular with everyone. On the whole, he's the right guy."

The view from the powerless end of the spectrum is discouraged.

"I'm beginning to be very concerned about the impression the world community has of the UN," Mr. Arria said. He believes the UN's star dropped a long way when peacekeepers could not prevent the killing of Bosnian deputy prime minister Hakeja Turajlic while he was travelling in a UN convoy.

"It's going downhill rapidly, and it's not just a matter of public opinion. It's a matter of the capacity to act. We could become a laughingstock."

A very useful collection of short articles about the United Nations, covering a wide range of viewpoints, both pro and con, has recently appeared. It should be of great use to teachers. It is Donald Altschiller (ed.), *The United Nations' Role in World Affairs*. The Reference Shelf, c/o H.W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, Bronx, New York 10452. ISBN 0-8242-0841-2.

An assessment of the United Nations

Perez de Cuellar

Note: The following paragraphs are taken from the 1988 Annual Report of the then Secretary-General of the United Nations, Perez de Cuellar. They are included here as providing an insider's assessment of the United Nations. The full text can be found in UN Doc A/43/1 (September 14, 1988).

The present juncture of efforts and potentialities opens fresh perspectives for our common political endeavour. This seems to have prompted the observation increasingly heard in recent months that we may be entering a new phase of world affairs. I take the observation as neither a politician's promise nor a scientist's conclusion. A vast range of actions and policies is required to prove it right. If opportunities for breakthroughs on a variety of issues are to be seized, it seems to be important that we keep in mind the implications of our experience, whether of success or of

stalemate, in the efforts to resolve the major political questions on our agenda. In this report, I shall deal with these implications and the emerging outlook for the United Nations. As the resurgence in public interest in the Organization has been rather sudden, it is appropriate to recall the long background of efforts, accomplishments and setbacks behind our current experience.

We are all aware of the reasons why, during the first four decades of its existence, the United Nations has been unable to put in place the reliable system of collective security that its Charter envisaged. This system was based on the assumption that the grand alliance of the victors of the Second World War would continue and develop into their joint custodianship of world peace. Furthermore, in the words of one of the principal architects of the world Organization, the late President Roosevelt, the system implied "the end of the system of unilateral actions, exclusive alliances and spheres of influence and balances of power and all the other expedients which have been tried for centuries and have always failed". The chastening experience of the most extensive war fought on this planet was expected to transform the older patterns of power relations.

However, developments during the early years of the Organization went contrary to expectations. The assumed radical change was hindered by a variety of factors as far as relationships at the highest plane of global power were concerned. A whole set of circumstances created a continuing climate of mutual suspicion and fear. In such a climate, the great powers often looked at the United Nations from different angles, with the result that issues that could have been resolved through their joint endeavour became instead added subjects of controversy between them. An almost insuperable obstacle was thus placed in the way of the United Nations to give world peace a durable foundation.

In the difficult phase that naturally ensued — and that has lasted for decades — many who believed in the essentiality of the United Nations were thrown on the defensive. They were driven to enumerate the political achievements of the United Nations in specific cases, but these appeared slim in comparison with the great unresolved issues of our time. I believe that the accomplishments of the world organization, at any stage of its career, were far larger than what appeared from the case usually made in its defense. Along with the undeniable central fact that the United Nations was often brought to an impasse, in the field of maintaining international peace and security, by the inability of the permanent members of the Security Council to develop a common approach, there was also the fact, equally central, that the United Nations did not allow this factor to block its endeavours; with ingenuity and realism, it found other ways of at least defusing conflicts. If, in one vital respect, it fell short of the Charter, in other respects it kept pace with, and often served as, a catalyst of the process of rapid and peaceful change.

The United Nations played a decisive role in the process of decolonization, which has changed the political complexion of the globe and given vast populations control over their density. It gave authoritative definition to human rights and devised monitoring and other mechanisms for encouraging greater respect for them. It codified international law. In partnership with its specialized agencies, it established guidelines to deal with new problems and emerging concerns ranging from the environment, population, the law of the sea, the safeguarding of the rights of the hitherto disadvantaged segments of society like women, children, the aging and the handicapped to terrorism, drug abuse and the incidence of AIDS. It has responded to situations of disaster and dire human need; it has provided protection to refugees. It has had notable successes in the campaign for conquest of avoidable disease in the poorer parts of the world; it has taken measures towards food security and child survival. It has raised consciousness of global economic imperatives; through its development programs and the specialized agencies, it has represented a vital source of economic and technical assistance to developing countries.

In the political field, even when disabled by differences among the permanent members of the Security Council, the United Nations has displayed a capacity for innovation and played a role that on no reckoning can be considered peripheral. It has repeatedly acted to limit and control armed conflicts; without the peace-keeping operations launched by it, the theatres of conflict would have undoubtedly represented far greater danger to the wider peace. On major international disputes, it has suggested terms of just settlement. The formulation of such terms is the first requirement for bringing a dispute within a manageable scope and weeding out its implacable elements: this requirement the United Nations has repeatedly sought to fulfill. Above all, the Organization has maintained emphasis on the great objectives of arms limitation and disarmament, the self-determination of peoples and the promotion of human rights, which are essential for the strengthening of universal peace.

These achievements have been made against the backdrop of the most massive transition in the history of the human race. The emergence of new States has taken place at the same time that there has been a proliferation of global concerns, stemming partly from the emerging problems I mentioned above, partly from the impact of advancing technologies and partly from a new mass consciousness of rights leading to the non-acceptance of old inequities within or between societies. The United Nations has not only given shape and expression to the sense of world community but established a basis for nations to develop a concerted response to their common problems.

Teaching about the United Nations?

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The federal election

Ken Osborne

An election campaign obviously provides a wide range of opportunities for history and social studies. We can get students involved in studying the organization of elections the methods of campaigning, the issues, the role of the media, and on and on. Increasingly, teachers are actually getting students involved in campaigns as part of their history programs. All such activities are to be welcomed as giving students a realistic grounding in the political process which will be useful to them both now and in the future. Reprinted below is a revised version of a list which appeared in an earlier issue of the journal but which is appropriate once again. It is summary list of eighty-three different ways in which we can use the election in our courses.

86 ways to teach about elections

I. Election Posters, Pamphlets, etc.

1. Collect and display posters, pamphlets, etc.
2. Analyze them for impact, fairness, etc.
3. Display of candidates' pictures.
4. Students compile photos of signs, etc.
5. Compare/analyze political advertisements.
6. Students make their own posters, etc.
7. Examine role of advertising firms in campaign.
8. Get an expert to speak to class on political advertising.

II. Newspaper Work

9. Collect and display newspaper election reports.
10. Assess newspapers for fairness, bias, etc.
11. Examine cartoons.
12. Students design own cartoons.
13. Assign students to parties to collect and report on news stories.
14. Assign students to topics/issues to collect and report on news stories.
15. Collect/analyze editorials and columns (Arlene Billinkoff, Fred Cleverley, Frances Russell, etc.)
16. Compare different newspapers' treatments of election.
17. Keep a record of what party leaders and spokespeople say during campaign.
18. On a large map, track the travels of party leaders *et al.* during campaign.
19. Analyze use of photos/pictures for fairness, accuracy, etc.
20. Invite cartoonists, reporters, editors, etc. to speak to class.
21. Collect community newspapers from around province and analyze election coverage.
22. Students choose a particular reporter and examine how he/she covers election.
23. Students make their own newspapers on the election.
24. Students compile scrapbook(s) of clippings etc. describing election (can be used in future years).
25. Students write letters to the editor.

III. Electronic Media

26. Analyze/compare political advertisements on radio and television.
27. Tape radio/TV coverage of issues, parties, leaders, etc. for analysis in class.
28. Investigate the rules regulating political broadcasting.
29. Investigate how politicians seek to use the media.
30. Ask media people to speak to students re media and politics.
31. Students prepare their own radio/TV commercials re the election.
32. Students prepare tape/video describing the election campaign.

IV. Polling and Public Opinion

33. Collect newspaper articles on polling.
34. Ask a pollster to speak to students.
35. Students conduct their own polls, inside or outside school.

36. Examine use of computers in polling.
37. Examine issue of influence/role of polls in elections.

V. Campaigning

38. From news reports, keep a log of each party's campaign.
39. Analyze party election platforms.
40. Invite politicians to speak to students.
41. Organize all-candidates meetings.
42. Ask party workers/organizers to speak to students about campaign tactics.
43. Involve students in a campaign of their choice as an assignment.
44. Send students to visit party offices to find out how a campaign is run.
45. Students report on political meetings they attend as an assignment.
46. Investigate rules/laws about campaigning (election expenses, financing, etc.).
47. Investigate use of computers as a campaign tool.
48. Examine the role of particular groups (labour, business, women, natives, etc.) in campaign: students can be assigned a group.
49. Organize an election simulation using the computer.
50. Organize debates on particular issues.
51. Compare campaigning in Canada with campaigning in other countries.
52. Collect all forecasts of election results: which was most accurate? Why?
53. Students use data to make their own forecasts.
54. Students prepare songs, skits, plays, etc. dramatizing election incidents.
55. Each student (or group) is assigned a politician to follow during campaign.
56. Investigate candidates' backgrounds: gender, ethnicity, career, etc. What kinds of people are involved?
57. Establish party "profiles" (nature of supporters, geographic base, financing, favoured issues, etc.).
58. Assign students particular constituencies: compile record of campaign in that area.
59. Make a large map (the bigger the better) to locate/depict campaign incidents.
60. Keep record of campaign activities of smaller parties (Greens, Communists, Reform, Bloc Québecois, National, etc.
61. Collect/discuss stories illustrating human side of campaigning.
62. Student(s) track a specific issue throughout the election campaign.
63. Student(s) investigate issues of gender and gender balance that arise during campaign.
64. Prepare a report on the role of the Chief Electoral Offices and of Elections Canada.

VI. Election Day

65. Find out about the mechanics of organizing an election.
66. Investigate media preparations for election night.
67. Visit a polling station to see how it works.
68. Investigate the details of the Elections Act.
69. List/map/research the constituencies and their names.
70. Organize an election field trip (the legislature, party offices, media, etc.).
71. Play the Election Simulation available from Elections Manitoba.
72. Organize a mock election in school on classroom.

VII. Historical Background

73. Research previous elections.
74. Research relevant topics (e.g. history of the vote, prime ministers, office of Governor General, women and politics, etc.).
75. Visit the legislature: Take the tour, study the building, etc.
76. Investigate how parliament works (Speech from Throne; Votes of No Confidence; Speaker; etc.).
77. Students report on background of specific election issues.
78. Compile tables/charts of prime ministers/parties in power/Governors-General, etc.
79. Involve students in newspaper research via microfilm.
80. Students prepare computer databank on election statistics, past and present.
81. Organize a film festival (NFB) of election-related films.
82. Organize a student conference on the election: speakers, panels, etc. (better yet, get the students to organize it).
83. Study Dickens' account of the Eatanswill election in *The Pickwick Papers* (Chap. 13).
84. Study the Jackdaw Kit, *Canada Votes 1791-1891*.
85. Students write a history of this election.
86. Examine how persisting political issues (language, federal-provincial division of powers, etc.) are reflected in this election.

Canada's electoral system

Elections Canada

Why we vote

Perhaps the most basic question about our electoral system is, why do we vote?

Canada is a democracy and has a system of parliamentary government. This means that Canadians are represented in the federal Parliament by men and women whom the people elect directly, to make decisions and enact laws on their behalf, and to speak out for them on matters falling within federal jurisdiction.

Elections are held to give adult Canadians the chance to express their choice about who should represent us. Elections ensure that Canadians can regularly reaffirm their support of members of Parliament, or choose new representatives to replace the former ones.

The people involved

Most people think of the political parties and their leaders as the most important participants in a federal election, but in reality there are many other vital participants: the voters; the candidates; campaign workers; and nonpartisan election officials, including the Chief Electoral Officer of Canada, returning officers, and the staff of Elections Canada.

- The *voters* are indispensable to the electoral process. By casting his or her ballot, each voter becomes involved in the election.
- Political parties can best be described as organizations of people who share common political beliefs and work toward a common goal. In general, party membership is open to the public. Individuals, trade unions, other organizations and businesses may donate money to federal parties and candidates.
- The *candidates* campaign against one another for the opportunity to represent the voters of one federal electoral district.
- People can volunteer as campaign workers for the candidates, for example by distributing leaflets door-to-door to solicit support, or by acting as a scrutineer at a polling station.
- Others serve as election officials. Hundreds of thousands of workers are needed across Canada during each federal election, to prepare voters' lists, supervise the voting on election day, and carry out administrative tasks. Every federal election official is paid a fee. Some of those appointed as election officials are recommended by political parties; however, they must carry out their duties impartially.
- The Chief Electoral Officer of Canada is the person appointed by the House of Commons to oversee the electoral process and to ensure that all qualified voters have the opportunity to vote. The Chief Electoral Officer and the staff at Elections Canada in Ottawa are not connected with any political party nor with the government of the day. For each electoral district, the Governor-in-Council (the Cabinet) appoints a *returning officer*, an official who organizes and supervises the administration of the election at the local level, under the Chief Electoral Officer's direction.

To be a candidate

Although the law now permits most Canadians who are at least 18 years of age to run for election to the House of Commons, all candidates must abide by certain regulations. First, in order for a candidate to be endorsed by a party, he or she must usually be chosen at a nomination meeting held by the party members in the electoral district concerned, and have a letter of endorsement from the party leader. (Most candidates for election to the House of Commons are affiliated with a political party. This has been the case since before Confederation in 1867.) A candidate who is not endorsed by a party can run as an independent candidate. As well, each candidate must secure a specified number of voters' signatures on a nomination paper, and make a cash deposit. These rules ensure that candidates have some support. Each candidate must, in addition, appoint an official agent and an auditor.

Timing

The Canadian Constitution sets the maximum duration of a Parliament at five years. However, it is most unusual for a

Parliament to last its full term. Federal elections are usually called between four and four-and-a-half years apart. They may even be held sooner, for example, if a government is defeated on a major issue in the House of Commons.

Elections have sometimes taken place at close intervals. For example, the federal elections of 1979 and 1980 were held only nine months apart; and between 1962 and 1968, there were four general elections.

The average duration of parliaments since Confederation has been about 40 months.

How it all works

Canada's electoral system is based on that used in the United Kingdom. The Canadian federal Parliament is composed of an upper house (the Senate), whose members are appointed by the Governor General on the recommendation of the Prime Minister; and an elected lower house (the House of Commons).

For the purpose of electing members to the House of Commons, Canada is divided into 295 electoral districts (also known as ridings or constituencies). Only one member of Parliament is elected for each electoral district, although any number of candidates may run. The Prime Minister (who is normally an MP himself) must have the support of a majority of members in the House, and is usually the leader of the party that has the greatest number of MPs elected, which sometimes includes the support of members of the other parties.

From time to time, a seat in the House of Commons becomes vacant when the member who was elected to it resigns or dies. The Prime Minister must then set the date for a "by-election" to fill the vacancy. By-elections are conducted using generally the same process employed for general elections.

The Canadian system is called the "plurality" or "first-past-the-post" system, since the candidate with the most votes over the other individual candidates (the first one past an imaginary post) wins the election. There is no requirement for winning candidates to obtain over 50 percent of the vote (an absolute majority) or for parties to be assigned seats according to the percentage of votes they receive (the "proportional representation" system).

These are the basic features of Canada's electoral system. Several other noteworthy characteristics help make the system strong and respected:

- The first of these characteristics is the secret ballot. The secret ballot ensures that we can vote without fear of intimidation. Over a century ago, people voted verbally or by show of hands, in public, and unscrupulous candidates could bribe or threaten voters to force them to vote in their favour. To ensure that the voter's choice is secret, each voter marks the ballot privately, and the ballots are not identified in any way.
- The second noteworthy characteristic is the impartiality of election officials. Returning officers, enumerators (those who collect names for the voters' lists) and others must be strictly honest and impartial. All election officials take an oath in which they swear to uphold voters' rights and the secrecy of the vote, and to perform their duties without favouritism. Urban enumerators work in pairs, each one representing a different political persuasion, so that no one enumerator can attempt to place ineligible voters on the list, or campaign on behalf of a candidate, without his or her partner finding out. And on election day itself, each candidate may have scrutineers present at each poll and during the counting of the ballots, to ensure that all is conducted fairly and properly.

  In the past, election officials sometimes took advantage of their positions to commit election fraud. However, today's election officials carry out their duties in a nonpartisan manner.
- Third, Canada's electoral system stresses accessibility for all voters. Thus, there is proxy voting (in which a relative or friend may cast a voter's ballot on his or her instruction); level access at many polls for physically disabled voters; and early voting at advance polls and in the offices of returning officers, for those who are unable to vote on election day. Special measures allow military and public service personnel and their dependents stationed abroad to vote by mail. And when bedridden patients in nursing homes and chronic care hospitals cannot get to the polls, election officials may carry the ballot box to them. Workers too are protected, by a law that entitles them to have a certain number of consecutive hours to vote, if necessary by taking time off work with pay.

This material is reprinted from ***Canada's Electoral system: How It Evolved and How It Works,*** *prepared by Elections Canada.*

Proof Reading and Editing

Margaret King — For the Queen's English

From Letters to Dissertations

Please phone, I can help you.

477 -5972

Canada's Electoral System: How it evolved and how it works

Elections Canada '88

Editor's note: Although we usually take it for granted, organizing a fair and efficient election is an extremely complex affair, especially in a country as large as Canada. It can be an interesting project for students to work out just how they would organize a nationwide election right from scratch. Although most Canadians do not know it, the expertise of Elections Canada is much admired around the world and is increasingly called on by countries that want to hold elections. The following information was prepared by Elections Canada and should be helpful to teachers.

The main stages of an Election

There are three main stages in the federal election process, beginning with pre-election plans such as the appointment of returning officers, if necessary, and the setting of polling division boundaries. The second stage begins once the writs of election are issued and ends a few days after election day. This stage includes the registration of voters, nomination of candidates, preparation of the voters' lists, and polling day itself. After the election comes the final stage, in which officials and candidates prepare reports. The Chief Electoral Officer oversees each phase in the process.

The preparations

Many essential activities must take place well in advance of an election call:

Appointing Return Officers — Since the returning officer is the key official in each electoral district, the Governor General-in-Council (that is, the federal Cabinet) must replace those who may have resigned or died since the previous election. Returning officers must also be appointed if the boundaries of the electoral districts have changed due to redistribution.

Registering Political Parties — In order for candidates to use the name of a political party on the ballot, that party must be properly registered by the Chief Electoral Officer. A party must have at least 50 candidates at a general election for its registration to be in effect.

Setting Up Polling Divisions — Each returning officer must, before the election call, divide his or her electoral district into polling divisions, one for roughly every 350 voters in urban areas and somewhat fewer in rural areas. Setting up the polling divisions is an essential part of the preparation process because the voters' lists are prepared and votes recorded based on these boundaries. As well, the returning officer establishes revisal districts (groupings of urban polling divisions to facilitate the revision of the voters' lists) and advance polling districts (groupings of polling divisions to organize advance voting).

Selecting Polling Stations — Each returning officer must select convenient locations for polling stations (where the voting takes place) for both election day and advance voting. Polling stations are often set up in community centres, schools, or other central locations well-known in the community.

Preparing Supplies — In the meantime, Elections Canada headquarters prepares maps, ballot paper and ballot boxes, instruction kits, forms, publications and other supplies that will be needed, and stores them until the election is called.

The election period

The Announcement Is Made — At the request of the Prime Minister, the Governor General dissolves Parliament and sets the date by which the writs of election must be returned, and the date by which the new Parliament will be covened. These dates are then announced by command of the Governor General. Under the *Canada Elections Act*, the election date must be set at least 50 days away, to allow election officials, parties and candidates time to organize the many necessary elements. The Chief Electoral Officer is notified by the Prime Minister, or by someone on his or her behalf, that a general election has been called. Almost immediately, the political parties and candidates begin their official campaigns; the parties' unofficial campaigns may have begun months earlier.

Issue of Writs — The Chief Electoral Officer issues to each returning officer a writ of election, the legal document that instructs them to hold an election in their electoral district. Each returning officer in turn prepares a public proclamation

notifying the electors of the important dates and other details relating to the election.

Opening The Offices — Almost immediately after the writs are issued, each returning officer opens up an office in the electoral district for which he or she is responsible. The returning officer will use this office as a headquarters, from which he or she will direct operations, receive candidates' nomination papers, answer inquiries, receive early votes from electors who will be unable to vote on election day, and tabulate the preliminary results on election night.

Registering The Voters — In urban areas, the returning officer consults the two candidates who came first and second at the previous election in his or her electoral district, to obtain names of enumerators for each polling division. In rural areas, the returning officer chooses them. Returning officers must then appoint two enumerators for each urban polling division (one in rural polling divisions), train them, and supervise them as they prepare the preliminary voters' lists. In an urban area, a returning officer may supervise as many as 600 enumerators; across Canada, up to 106,000 enumerators may be needed. Following enumeration, a Notice of Enumeration card is sent to the homes of all voters named on the preliminary voters' lists, to confirm that they are registered, and to give the location and hours of the polling station they may vote at.

Revision Of The Voters' Lists — A revision period is held during which people may have their names added to the lists and have other corrections made.

Receiving Nominations — Candidates in each electoral district must submit nomination papers and cash deposits to the returning officer. If only one candidate is nominated, he or she is declared elected by acclamation, although this occurs only rarely.

Preparations For Polling Day — Ballot boxes must be prepared, ballot papers printed, and deputy returning officers and poll clerks (the officials in charge of the voting at the polls) engaged and trained in readiness for voting day. The returning officer rents space and furniture for polling stations (over 55,000 such stations across Canada). Elections Canada conducts a voter information program in the media, and ships to each returning officer across Canada the supplies needed for the taking of the vote.

Early Voting — The returning officer must arrange for advance polls, which are held on several specified days to provide one opportunity for early voting. As well, electors who will be away or otherwise unable to vote on election day or at the advance polls may cast their ballot in the office of the returning officer.

Election Day — On polling day, or election day, the polls open from 9 a.m. to 8 p.m. Voters go to the polling station named in their Notice of Enumeration card to cast their ballot.

The informal overall results of the election for the whole country are usually known within hours of the polls being closed, although they are formally verified by officials over the following days and weeks.

Wrapping Up

The Official Addition — A few days after election day, the returning officer opens the ballot boxes and, without actually looking at the ballots, examines the documents relating to the vote count in order to verify that the results were correctly calculated.

Recounts — A recount of the ballots is automatically conducted by a judge if the winning candidate is separated by less than 25 votes from any of the other candidates. A recount may also be conducted if the results are very close and a request is received from an interested party.

Returning The Writs — The returning officer records the name of the elected candidate on the same writ of election that was received at the beginning of the election period, and returns the writ to the Chief Electoral Officer. Once the writ is returned, the elected candidate may be sworn in as an MP, and is then entitled to sit in the House of Commons and to receive his or her salary as a member of Parliament.

Submitting Reports — All candidates and parties, whether successful or not, must submit a report on their election contributions and expenditures. If they meet certain conditions, they will be reimbursed for a part of their election expenses.

Reporting To Parliament — Lastly, the Chief Electoral Officer must prepare a narrative report to Parliament, containing information on the conduct of the election and recommendations for improvements to the electoral system.

What It All Costs

The *Canada Elections Act* restricts the amounts that candidates and parties can spend on certain types of expenses, according to a formula based on the number of voters on the preliminary voters' lists for each electoral district. The public treasury provides partial reimbursements of candidates' and registered political parties' election expenses, providing certain conditions are met. (These rules ensure that more affluent candidates do not have an unfair advantage.) All candidates and parties must submit detailed accounts after an election.

Reimbursements represent only one type of expense met by the taxpayers. The largest direct costs of a federal election by far are voter registration; the rental of election offices and polling stations in each of Canada's 295 electoral districts; salaries for tens of thousands of election officials; the printing of ballots; and other costs related to the admin-

istration of the election. Payments for these expenses benefit participating suppliers and provide temporary employment in almost every city and village across the country. In fact, the public treasury distributed just over $96 million in payments after the 1984 federal election, of which reimbursements to parties and candidates accounted for a little less than $16 million. The total cost of the 1984 election thus equalled $5.75 per eligible voter.

Playing By The Rules

To ensure that everyone involved in an election abides by the rules stated in the *Canada Elections Act*, the Act itself provides for a mechanism to investigate complaints of wrong-doing. Complaints typically relate to such election infractions as employers failing to grant their employees the required time off to vote; voting by unqualified people; or political advertisements being aired before the date allowed by law. Officials also try to ensure that candidates' expenditures do not exceed the limits imposed by law. The public and the candidates are informed about the rules surrounding the election, in order to prevent as many problems as possible before they occur.

Individuals who break election laws may be convicted and be required to pay a fine or serve a prison term.

Election Countdown

Parliament is dissolved; campaigning begins

Chief Electoral Officer sends telegrams to returning officers and issues the writs of election

Voter registration takes place

Preliminary voters' lists are established and a Notice of Enumeration card is mailed to each registered voter

Political advertising may begin

Candidates submit nomination papers to returning officer

Early voting takes place in the office of the returning officer

Voters' lists are revised

Voters vote at advance polls

Political advertising must stop

POLLING DAY

Official addition of the votes takes place

Recounts take place, if necessary

Returning officers return the writs of election, declaring the winning candidate

New MPs are sworn in and the new Parliament is convened

Candidates and political parties submit financial reports

The public treasury reimburses candidates' deposits and part of their expenses.

World Food Day is October 16

Worldwide, over 780 million people are undernourished. This means that their diet doesn't provide enough energy to maintain body weight and light activity. This is not because of a scarcity of food. In fact the world produces more than enough food to feed the entire population twice over. Hunger persists because people who don't have enough money are denied access to food, or the land (and inputs) to grow it on. This is just as true in Canada, where over two million people must seek emergency food assistance — food aid — from food banks each year.

The World Food Day Association of Canada (WFDAC) is a coalition of organizations, groups and individuals that promotes education and action to build food security, both locally and globally. The WFDAC work includes the production of educational resources on food and hunger issues; public awareness activities; and a community based Food Security Watch program.

The Hand That Feeds The World is this years' new curriculum resource kit for senior high school students. It provides a focus on women's roles in global food security and includes a 20 minute VHS video, activities and lesson plans ($49.95). Also available is The World Food Update, a 16 page tabloid newspaper on food security issues which contains analysis, profiles, and practical suggestions for action. It can be read like a magazine or used in senior high school or university classes. FREE

To find out more about other resource kits and the Food Security Watch program in Manitoba please call the Provincial Coordinator, Marny Fyfe at 786-2106.

A response to the High School Review

Chris Johnson

Many thanks to Vaughn Wadelius for his glimpse of the High School Review Document which he shared with us in the October '92 edition of the MANITOBA TEACHER. Vaughn invites Manitoba teachers to respond, and I have chosen to do so.

The curriculum imposed by the Review reminds me of the Postman and Weingartner observation that educational systems are "as if we are driving a multimillion-dollar sports car, screaming 'Faster! Faster!' while peering fixedly in the rearview mirror." The Review is essentially a top-down socio-economic document that expresses a back-to-basics bias and reveals just how much the steering committee planners are out of touch with today's classroom realities.

As an educator who has spent many years working toward educational change and striving to improve the effectiveness of our schools, I looked forward to seeing the Review. In the analysis expressed in this article, I will attempt to argue that the Review misses the point of educational reform in two fundamental ways. First, while the idea of educational reform is to create a framework that will energize the schooling process, the Review curriculum fails to provide the classroom supports that committed and dedicated classroom teachers throughout the province have been seeking. Second, while the fundamental goal of education reform should focus on ways our schools can ensure that 100% of graduates are prepared to be knowledgeable, literate, and concerned citizens, the Review curriculum promotes an impossible socio-economic agenda that will harm the quality of public education in this province.

In presenting my analysis, it is my intent that the views expressed in this article will make a difference in the ultimate implementation of the Review. I do hope that those who care will pause long enough to consider the implications and add their ideas to mine.

The educational philosophy expressed by the Review is rooted in eight false assumptions or fallacies which mark it as a flawed instrument of education reform.

Fallacy #1

School Reform Can Be Achieved By Top-Down Planning

Somewhere between the change in governments in 1986 and the 1992 version of the High School Review, participation of educators in the creation of the Review ended. Those at the 'top' have held so much control over the change process that the current version can be viewed only as a top-down document. Teachers in the schools generally have no knowledge of the Review or what it contains. Teachers' eyes haven't been closed as Vaughn Wadelius implies in the October '92 edition of the TEACHER; there's been nothing to see.

In the near future, teachers will become more aware of the Review as principals begin to implement it. They will note the features it contains such as multiculturalism, a new panacea course called skills for independent living, more compulsory credits, provincial examinations, grade 9 integration, course renumbering, the addition of more peripheral personnel, etc. Sadly they will gradually realize that the Review curriculum misses the whole point of reform. That the planners are out of touch with the reality of today's high school classroom is more evident when one realizes that there is no mention in the Review of what teachers have known and have been saying all along: that the key determinants of a teacher's success with students and the impact of the schooling process are attributable to class size, teacher course load, and administrative support. These matters are not expressed in the Review.

Surely it is self-evident that the implementation and ultimate success of the Review curriculum will depend on the least empowered group in the creation process - the teachers. One could speculate that the Review curriculum will share the same fate as other top-down policies of the past. One might hope that the meaning of the 'NO' vote message to the Charlottetown Accord will be understood by those who would be educational leaders.

Leaders in education must realize eventually that true leadership toward educational change means "being in

touch" to the extent that they know where the followers want to go and how to lead them there. This calls for a very different process than issuing bludgeoning edicts and devising manipulative schemes. Until this truth is realized by all concerned, true educational reforms will be something just talked about, and our schools will continue to wallow in a confusing sea of special interests, conflicting roles, impossible expectations, and leaky missions.

The Review seems to miss the point that in the process we call schooling, it is the teacher that teaches, not the text and not the curriculum. The teacher is the most important resource in the classroom. The Review is long on prescribing what the teacher will teach, but fails to improve the essential conditions of the educational environment in which this socio-educational mission must be carried out.

Fallacy #2

Increased universality of Public Schools will improve educational effectiveness

The Review further extends the principle of the universality of our public schools with prescriptive approaches to mainstreaming, undifferentiated groupings, new compulsory subjects, multiculturalism, Native studies, and, the soon-to-be-announced sustainable development. While no public consensus exists that these are the pressing issues that our schools must deal with, there is a strong belief among teachers and parents alike that our schools are ignoring the real problems that affect learning and school effectiveness. Concerns centre on the application of a philosophy of universality, which threatens to turn schools into wards with the sole purpose of holding students off the streets. Contrary to this philosophy, schools cannot accommodate children with serious emotional problems without disrupting classroom-learning. It is false to believe that merely serving time is as valued as learning, that student violence can increase without consequences to those involved, that classroom-learning is of secondary importance to a multitude of co-curricular and extra-curricular distractions and special agendas, or that an academic environment can exist without a strong visible emphasis on academic achievement.

The trend to private education trend in this province may reflect public attitudes toward the extent to which public schools have embraced the universality of education principle. At a time of recession and economic uncertainty, our private schools in Manitoba currently enroll approximately 10,000 students and will increase in enrollment by a further 7% this year. That's another 700 students! Private education is not cheap either. Beyond education property taxes, it will cost a family anywhere from $1,500 to $7,000 tuition to send a child to a private school for a year. It's not just a religious motive that explains this trend. Non-religious private schools have the largest enrollments, and they are full without any recruitment efforts.

Why is this trend toward private education so strong? One can easily argue that private schools have what public schools used to offer: a safe environment - safe from physical violence and safe to be academically the best a student can be. Teachers in private schools are generally perceived as energetic, committed, and enjoying their work in a school that has expectations for student achievement and an administration that supports the educational process. There's no secret here; it's just perceived as quality education.

The Review curriculum promotes multiculturalism which involves a very different orientation in our schools from that of multicultural education. The goal of multicultural education has been to educate students through the curriculum toward an awareness of the diversities and disparities that exist within Canada's cultural mosaic and to help students develop an understanding, empathy, and tolerance of our similarities and differences - to realize that unity and diversity define the Canadian identity. Multiculturalism as an educational ideology goes far beyond education in that it is a socio-economic agenda to restructure schools and society to reflect unique cultural identities with collective rights - in the belief that separate but equal racial and ethnic groups define the Canadian identity. There is no public consensus that our schools and society should be shaped by this multiculturalism orientation and yet it finds its way into the Review curriculum.

The above is not an argument for elitist public schools. I have always been an advocate of 'take 'em where they're at' and do the best you can. My point is that the Review curriculum puts forward its social reform agenda without public consensus and extends the universality principle with pseudo-solutions which are just more of the problem.

Fallacy #3

School reform can be achieved by extending the universality principle and increasing peripheral personnel

The Review curriculum mixes social reform and education reform in its aim to reduce the '30%' dropout rate. It extends the growing trend toward personnel that operate on the periphery of classrooms, such as teaching assistants, resource teachers, counsellors, consultants, etc.

There are two serious concerns in this approach. One is that these measures focus on the problems instead of the solutions. Second, the Review takes for granted that schools can control social problems which are primarily economic in origin. The danger that is inherent in this effort at social

engineering is that energies are so focused on dysfunctional elements of schooling, that the whole system is affected. This process might be likened to the medical doctor who believes that the way to treat the sick is to make everyone a little less healthy.

One should look closely at the '30%' dropout rate that has been widely quoted in the media lately. There isn't any legitimate study carried out either nationally or provincially in Canada that actually substantiates this figure. That a dropout rate exists at all should be a serious concern for everyone of us, and the rate may exceed 30% in some situations. However, we should keep in mind that within this percentage, many dropouts from high school enroll in community colleges and through adult status, enroll in universities. Others who drop out achieve a grade 12 standing through GED programs. In addition, many high school students who are labelled "dropouts," are actually in transition to another school or simply taking a time out to cope with personal or family situations and will return at some point. Factors that are most likely to produce permanent dropouts have more to do with socio-economic problems such as poverty, unemployment, family dysfunction, cultural exclusion, and gender discrimination than with any serious philosophical flaw in the schooling process inherent in the current curriculum.

Unfortunately, the Review has chosen to focus on the '30%' and ignored the fact that a '70%' rate of graduation suggests that our schools may be more successful than we think. Instead of looking at how the schools got to be successful at graduating the great majority of students with a quality education and strengthening these features, the Review misses the whole point of reform by attempting to shape our schools to carry out an expensive, controversial, and impossible socio-economic agenda.

Fallacy #4

Grade 9 integration into the senior years program can be achieved without budget provisions

The news of the integration of grade 9 into a senior years program was welcomed by most teachers. For some years now, it has been obvious that grade 9's did not fit into the middle school scenario. Many teachers believed that the credit system in grade 9 would add motivation and accountability which were lacking in our approach to addressing the needs of this age/stage group of adolescents. In addition, there is a feeling often expressed by grade 9 teachers that level differentiation at grade 9 would allow them to be more effective in meeting a variety of student needs, abilities, and interests. Not so. Grade 9 and grade 10 - now to be called senior 1 and 2 - will be undifferentiated, mainstreamed groupings. Each grade will require students to take six compulsory and two option courses, for a total of sixteen credits. All courses in senior 1 will be designated general, modified, or ESL. Courses in senior 2 will be designated general, modified, or ESL, except math and science which may be designated specialized. One can only wonder at the rationale for this move. Instead of bringing grade 9 into the senior years program, these moves look more like the new senior 2 was made in the image of the "junior high grade 9" program. A twisted irony, don't you think?

Referring to the inclusion of grade 9's as the most significant change, Vaughn Wadelius makes the curious statement that "for many Manitoban high schools this has not required physical changes." That may be, but a casual survey of 300 public schools in Manitoba (excluding Frontier) that consist of up to grade 9 or above, produced the following results:

Structure	**K-9**	**7-9**	**10-12**	**K-12**	**7-12**	**9-12**
# of schools	123	33	23	50	45	26
% of schools	41.0	11.0	7.6	16.6	15.0	8.6

From looking at the last three columns, we can see that the 'many' turns out to be more like 40% of Manitoba schools presently accommodating grade 9's. Within this picture, some school divisions - frequently rural ones - have very little restructuring to do. For other divisions, there is a large and expensive transition ahead of them that can only be achieved through special consideration by the Finance Board.

Since there was no additional provincial funding budgeted to facilitate the physical accommodation of the grade 9 integration, one can easily see why the hybrid of some grade 9's on the credit system and others on the pass/fail approach, provided for in the Administrators Guide, must exist for some time both within and between school divisions. In an increasingly mobile society, this discrepancy will cause considerable anguish for students and their parents who move within divisions or to other divisions, as well as being a source of frustration for teachers who must implement this change and explain it to the public.

Fallacy #5

Schooling can be improved by reducing the number of teachers and impoverishing school curricula

The Review curriculum changes our secondary school reference from grades 9-12 to levels 1-4. It keeps the number of credits required to graduate from levels 2-4 at 20 by increasing the compulsory credits from 10 to 12.5 and

reducing the elective credits from 10 to 7.5. I have a very great concern that these changes in the allocation of the compulsory and optional credits will mean a reduction in the number of teachers and an impoverishment of the curricula currently offered in our schools. For example, consider the school model described below:

Happy Secondary School; Senior 1-4; 500 students evenly distributed across levels 1-4; unsemestered; eight 40-minute classes per day; varied options program in Business, Music, Science, Art, Drama, Social Sciences.

The impact of the change in the compulsory/optional credit allocation will reduce student demand for option courses with a weight of 2.5 credits for every student in levels 2-4. Using the scenario in the box above and focusing on the 375 students in levels 2-4, the results can be calculated as follows: 375 x 2.5 (number of fewer options demanded by students) ___ 25 (average class size) ____ 7 (average number of sections taught by teachers) = 5.3 fewer teachers required. Those who might argue that it's still the same total number of students had better look again. As one who has scheduled a grade 7-12 school of 1,000 students for eleven years, I know that the 5.3 teacher surplus can only be partially offset by the new courses such as skills for independent living. In essence, the increase in compulsory credits and reduction in optional credits required to graduate will not offset each other and will result in fewer teachers required to serve a school population such as the one described in our model.

At a time of heightened concern for the quality of education and the retention of students in our schools, it seems incongruent that the Review would come down with a more prescriptive curriculum calling for less local control. Heaping on more compulsory courses, mainstreaming, multiculturalism, Native studies, sustainable development, teaching assistants, resource teachers, consultants, etc., at the expense of a rich and varied curriculum responsive to student needs and interests is not the answer and misses the point of school reform.

The option courses in our schools have arisen to satisfy a variety of differentiated student academic needs and interests. Indeed, teachers know that it is within the options area that student commitment and involvement in the learning process are more likely to flourish. To this extent, options and school retention efforts go hand in hand.

Student identification with schools and the meaning of learning are centred in the electives programs that schools offer. Ask students what is "useful" in schools and they will refer to the elective areas such as band, reading lab, accounting, economics, industrial arts, environmental studies, drama, or computer applications, etc. All these programs are threatened by the Review curriculum. The compulsory courses are often seen by students as less interesting "stuff" they have to take, and the option courses as the interesting or skill subjects they want to take for a variety of practical and academic reasons and that satisfy personal or future goals.

Once again, referring to the "Happy School" model with reference to the Review curriculum, students in level 2 will be able to take only two options and in level 3, only 3.5 options (fewer with spares). This is a reduction of two option credits in these two grades compared to the current curriculum. Option courses such as French, American history, general business, chorale, computer science, chemistry, physics, keyboarding, biology, art, world issues, etc. will all have a tough time surviving in the wake of the choices students will be forced to make. I doubt there is any greater inherent value in skills for independent living, physical education (health), and an additional language arts credit in level 4 over the option courses previously mentioned. Finally, what will be the impact of the Native studies course and the shift to industrial arts on an already reduced electives requirement? One may speculate that the impact will be greatest in mid-size schools that already struggle to retain options, students, and teachers each year.

Finally, the Review would have been more visionary and less reversionary had it aimed its reforms where they are needed most. One might have hoped that the Review would have chosen to focus on ways to help schools enrich programs in response to local needs, give encouragement to teachers to create and adapt curriculum to connect with today's adolescents, provide schools with the means to manage class size and control teacher course loads and, very importantly, create a system of extensive teacher professional development and academic growth. These are some of the areas where reform is needed most urgently, and the Review doesn't address any of them.

Fallacy #6

An additional compulsory Language Arts credit will improve student literacy

The Review makes it compulsory for graduates to have two credits of level 4 language arts. English teachers are among the most dedicated to their subject and committed to the teaching of their students. Most work with challenging conditions such as large classes and staggering marking loads. English teachers know that traditional definitions of literacy are at odds with overwhelming social and technological trends and an entire generation of video adolescents. In spite of these obstacles, English teachers have been successful.

Let us remember that in the K-8 area, language arts and the whole language approach already occupy the greatest amount of time in the curriculum. Language arts in level 1

has twice as much time allocated to it as any other subject. Language arts has always been compulsory at levels 2 and 3. As it is, most students who positioned themselves for university have taken the double credit English 300 course. So, it is this group of students with this language arts background that university professors are referring to when they claim that our graduates have weak literacy skills.

So what is the point of an additional compulsory language arts credit at level 4? If the university-bound students have already been taking the double credit by choice, then for whom is the extra credit targeted? The obvious answer is that it is directed at those students who have been graduating from high schools with a single English 301 credit. Frequently, these adolescents have struggled, often unwillingly, with language arts through the grades. Developmentally and in terms of literacy readiness, they are often bored and have signaled that they have had enough. By age 17 and 18, most frequently these students, in non-traditional ways, are literate and ready to read a recipe, program a computer, study a manual to fix a car, write a resumé, and quote liberally from *Rolling Stone*. I suspect that the additional compulsory language arts credit will add further frustration to many of our students and will not be perceived by some as an incentive to stay in school and graduate.

Finally, by adding the additional compulsory language arts credit at level 4, the Review is making the assumption that more literacy is learned in language arts than in other subjects. Not so. If literacy still means reading, building vocabulary, writing, observing, debating, role-play, simulations, working with statistical data, and using appropriate critical thinking skills in the process of becoming both independent and cooperative learners who develop skills of problem-solving, decision-making, negotiation, and conflict resolution - then I submit that all subjects in school curricula promote literacy, not just language arts. Every teacher knows that the difference between compulsion and the commitment that comes from making choices to satisfy real needs is the key determinant of student motivation, interest, and learning in the classroom.

Fallacy #7

Citizenship development in our schools can be achieved without students enrolled in social studies courses

If Canada is to survive as a democratic nation as we know it and continue to compete in global trade and to impact on world problems, then it is essential that we produce knowledgeable and informed citizens. The current curriculum fails to promote this citizenship ideal, and the Review curriculum makes a bad situation worse.

With respect to the current senior high curriculum, only about 30% of our graduates take either the world issues, western civilization, or human geography elective courses in grade 12. This means that fully 70% of Manitoba high school graduates take no social studies course after grade 11. For most students, then, the compulsory offering of Canadian studies in grade 9, North American geography in grade 10, and Canadian history in grade 11 are all the knowledge of their world and citizenship development our students receive - three out of 28 credits! I find this situation both frightening and deplorable for what it portends for the future of our democracy and for how lightly we take the citizenship function of our schools. A further and major step backwards occurred when the Department abolished the provincial curriculum committee structure, which halted development toward a conceptually-based social studies program and resulted in a lapse back to the geography and history disciplines.

The Review curriculum, by keeping the same number of credits required to graduate at 20 for levels 2-4, but reducing the options required from 10 to 7.5, has made the situation even worse. Under the current curriculum, at least some students were able to take additional social studies/social science courses such as American history, economics, psychology, world issues, etc. The reduction in options required and the additional compulsory language arts at level 4 in the Review curriculum will reduce student demand for social studies option courses even further. The four-credit requirement at level 4 will not change this dilemma and may make it worse because minimal requirements tend to become maximum expectations. It is difficult to discern whether the further decline in citizenship development in our schools - which will result when the Review curriculum is implemented - was deliberate or accidental, but the results will be the same.

If graduating knowledgeable and informed graduates in pursuit of citizenship development had been a goal of the Review curriculum planners, there were a number of alternatives that could have been implemented, i.e., a compulsory social studies course at level 4 instead of the additional language arts or increasing the number of credits to graduate, etc. That the Review curriculum chose not to do this is a major value statement on the part of the province.

Fallacy #8

External examinations will raise educational standards

Due to the "system's perceived inability to graduate literate and knowledgeable students," the Review has extended province-wide examinations in selected subjects through to the year 1996-97. Call me a heretic, but this feature is an

expensive and outrageous farce. This antiquated memorizing-to-forget charade of yesteryear is intended to "clearly establish a set of expectations or standards for a given course." So, it's not the professional teacher or the curriculum guide that will set standards now, but a provincial exam. Just to make sure there is no mistaking the professional status of our teachers, "teachers and administrations" must "review the appropriateness of their teaching and evaluation methods..." I can just imagine the reaction of an English professor at a university to the top-down dictum that his or her students would now write a provincial exam and that he or she and the Dean would discuss the results. But here they are, the provincial exams, in flagrant conflict with other child-centered features of the Review, such as mainstreaming, modifying curriculum, individualized instruction, cooperative learning strategies, etc.

There was a time in the history of education in this province that I remember, when over 60% of the curriculum consisted of prescribed courses required to graduate; there were few options; courses were undifferentiated; no one had spares; and provincial exams were written in grade 12. These were the good old days. The dropout rate was 50%. It was 1962, and I was a student at Brandon Collegiate Institute! We have not come very far since then, it seems.

In conclusion, I am sure everyone is familiar with the expression "if it ain't broke, don't fix it." As an advocate of change for the sake of change, I have always disputed the logic of this bit of false wisdom, especially when applied to elements of our education system. Would you want to fly on an airline with this motto? However, the Review curriculum seems to have taken this false logic a step further with the motto "if it ain't broke, we'll 'break' it." The Review curriculum, written no doubt as an expression of restraint mentality, will have a profound impact on education in this province. Let's hope that this article will generate at least some discussion within one of the unempowered stakeholder groups that will be dramatically affected by the changes - Manitoba teachers.

Chris Johnson is currently teaching with the Education Faculty at Brandon University. He has been a teacher for twenty-four years, including eleven years as a high school administrator. He has received the Hilroy Scholarship for curriculum innovation and served on the MTS leadership team, provincial curriculum committees, P.D. committees, and negotiations committees, etc.

The way a society treats its children reflects not only its qualities of compassion and protective caring but also its sense of justice, its commitment to the future and its urge to enhance the human condition for coming generations. This is as indisputably true of the community of nations as it is of nations individually.

Perez de Cuéllar
Secretary-General of the united Nations, 1987

An earthbound design for spaceship earth

E. Kim Tyson

A holistic instructional plan for the grade 7 social studies curriculum

The Grade 7 Social Studies course, Spaceship Earth, includes a variety of concepts and themes about the earth as a planet in a larger solar system and universe. It focuses on the physical environment and resources of the earth, the diversity of human life on earth, the relationship between people and their physical environment in different parts of the world, and on viewing the earth as an ecological system. The representation of the course content in the design of a spaceship (see attached diagram) reflects the self-contained, interdependent nature of the earth and all life on it.

The content is organized into five units of study, each with suggested lengths of time for instruction. Some adjustments in length of time have been made for several units as follows:

	Unit	Suggested Time Frame	My Time Frame
I	The Planet Earth	4 weeks	4 weeks
II	The Physical Environment and Its Resources	8 weeks	6 weeks
III	Diversity of Human Life on Earth	3 weeks	4 weeks
IV	Patterns and People Around the World	10 weeks	8 weeks
V	Ecological System of the Earth	3 weeks	6 weeks

These time frames were adjusted to allow more time to integrate cumulative information from one unit to the next and to increase time spent on specific units. For example, Unit III was extended by one week in an attempt to incorporate information about the physical environment (Unit II) into the topic of population patterns and growth. Similarly, Units II and IV were shortened by a total of 4 weeks to permit extension of Unit III and, more importantly, Unit V on ecological systems. In the latter case, the study of ecological systems could be used as a course synthesis, tying in concepts about the physical environment, population distribution, uses of natural resources and the need for human activities to be harmonized with nature. The scope of this synthesis would require considerably more time than the three weeks as suggested.

The main elements of this course, as indicated in the middle section of the spaceship in the diagram, include the interactions and distributions of climatic patterns, water, microbes, air, energy, soil, plants and animals (including humans). These elements represent components of the biosphere and include themes of diversity and interdependency. Connected to the biosphere are other parts of the spaceship which represent the content in each unit.

While the outer shell of the ship has a solid line indicating a definite boundary between the earth and space, all other "dividing" lines are "open" between units of information and the themes of the biosphere. This was intentionally done to indicate that both the ecological processes and life on earth, as well as the information in the course, are not separated by finite boundaries. Two-way arrows indicate the flow of information within and between units and the connectedness of concepts and ideas, as well as the dynamic ecological processes that are characteristic of the biosphere.

The total time allotted to the "core" course is 28 weeks. There are an additional 12 weeks for research projects, field trips or extension work. These projects provide students with opportunities to make connections between the concepts they are learning and the experiences in their daily lives; for example, studying the population distribution of different cultural groups in Winnipeg, or visiting local ecosystems. Each unit time frame is allotted an additional two weeks, as indicated in the diagram by the darker shade of colour. Also, there is a two-week supply of "reserve fuel" if needed (and it likely will be needed). The special projects, guest speakers, field trips and discussion of current issues are not necessarily confined to a two-week period after the unit, as represented in the diagram, but can be interspersed throughout the unit as is appropriate. The key is to remain flexible in the implementation of the unit plans.

The starting point for the course is in Unit I and follows the plan laid out in the curriculum guide, as indicated by the

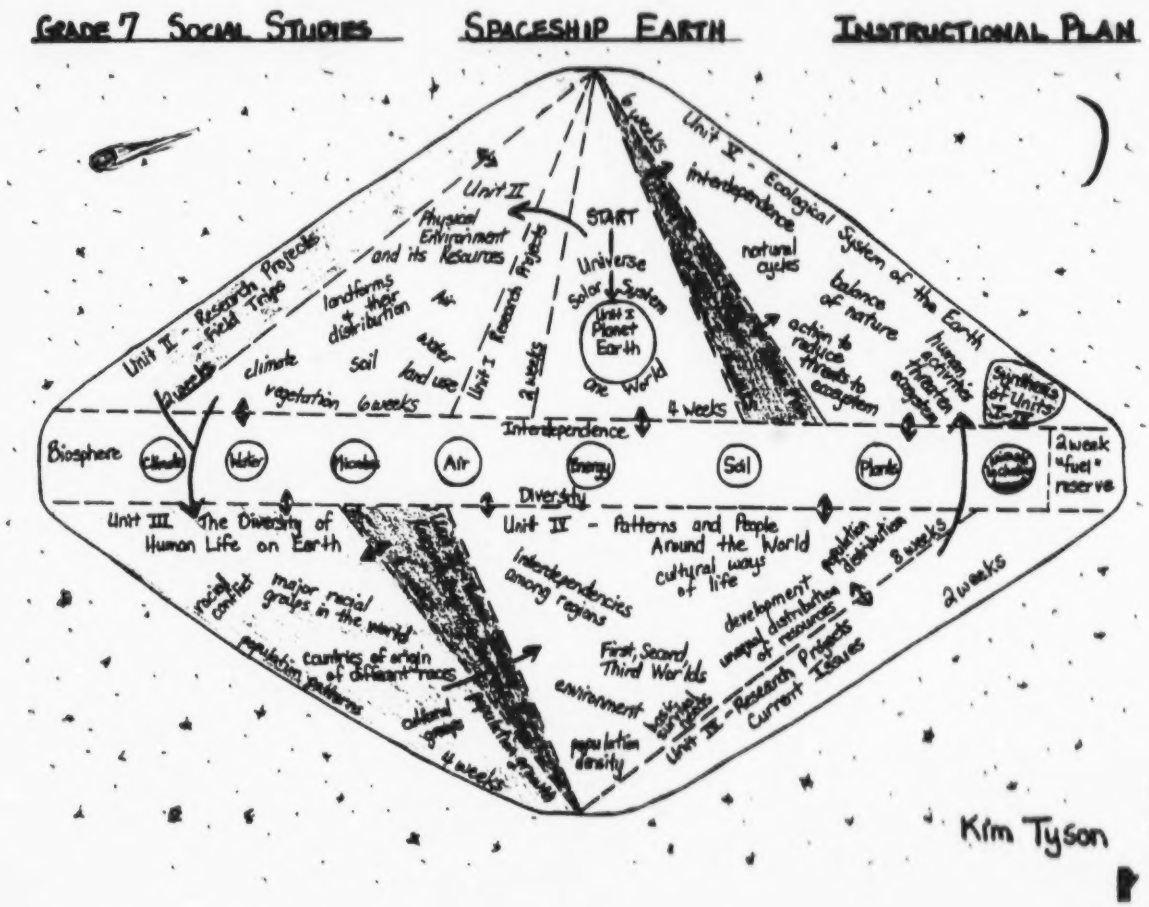
one-way arrows. As previously stated, the unit on ecological systems of the earth could be used as a synthesis for the course. It is critically important for students to understand basic ecological processes and relationships, and that without healthy ecosystems, of which humans are a part, there won't be a planet to live on, let alone study.

There is always more information included in curriculum guides than is reasonably possible to cover. Incorporating new information into the existing framework can be even more challenging because of the increase and expansion of information technology. This "spaceship design" can provide a solid foundation for focusing on the main themes and concepts in the course and serves as a reminder that all living things are interdependent.

"...humankind has not woven the web of life.
We are but one thread within it..."

Chief Seattle, 1854

Ms Tyson prepared this paper as part of her work in Richard Harbeck's geography course in the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, during 1992-1993.



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A scavenger hunt for grade 7 geography

Steve Patrick

Based on the Grade 7 Social Studies theme (Space ship Earth) the following scavenger hunt attempts to familiarize students with general concepts surrounding the physical aspects of the planet, its human component and ecological challenges. In terms of my personal preference, I would have the students comment on the article they have located. Because of this, the duration of the activity would be extended to two or three periods. Students will be given a blank sheet of paper to record their answers. An indepth discussion would follow. (Question 11 gives me insight into what interests the students. This might or might not be helpful in lesson planning or test preparation, but it does provide more information about the individual.)

Student instructions

Get into groups of three or four. Using today's newspaper, answer the following questions on a blank sheet of paper. If you think that the newspaper does not have the information to answer the question, just write 'not available' on your answer sheet. A group mark will be assigned. Be prepared to report to the class on your findings.

1. Find a comic strip that focuses on the environment. What issue is being presented? (comic, pg. #)
2. Find an article about a 'local' pollution problem. What is the problem? Are there solutions? (title, pg. #)
3. Find a map used in any of the articles. Which part of the world does it deal with? What information does it tell us? (title, pg. #)
4. Find an article about population (this could be about a country, city, village, etc.). Why is there an article about this 'population'? (title, pg. #)
5. Find an article dealing with extreme weather conditions. What was it? Where did it occur? Damage? (title, pg. #)
6. Find a story about two groups of people fighting against each other. Who are these people? Where do they live? Challenge question - What are they fighting about? (title, pg. #)
7. Find an article that deals with outer space. What is it about? (title, pg. #)
8. Find an article about people moving (migrating) from one place to another. Who are these people? Where are they coming from/going to? Why are they leaving? (title, pg. #)
9. Find an article that deals with energy resources - oil, nuclear, hydro, etc. In what country does the story take place? What is the main theme of the article? (title, pg. #)
10. Find an article that deals with transportation. What type of transportation is it? Is the type of transportation limited to one region or can people all over the world use it? Do you think that this type of transportation is 'friendly' to the environment? (title, pg. #)
11. Did you come across an article(s) that you found interesting but did not use to answer one of the questions? If so, what was the article about and why did it interest you? Allow each member of the group to choose their favourite article.
12. Most papers are divided into sections: sports, entertainment, etc. List all of the sections in today's paper. Which section did you find most helpful? Least helpful?
13. Explain how your group went about answering the questions. Was the work divided up? Was there a leader?

Mr. Patrick designed this activity as part of his work in Richard Harbeck's geography course in the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, during 1992-1993.

Some activities for grade 7 geography

Nancy Baker

Lesson one

Purpose:

1. To introduce environmental issues. To introduce the implications of a significant environmental change caused by humans.
2. To help students gain confidence in expressing themselves through the interview process.
3. To promote speaking and listening.

Activity: Interview

Topic: The Environment

Procedure:

1. Arrange students in groups of four. Label each student either A, B, C, or D.
2. Give the topic that students will be interviewing.

Questions:

1. What do you think is the biggest problem concerning our environment right now? Why?
2. What can *you* do as a student in our school to save the environment?
3. What are you currently doing in your home to help save the environment?

3. A interviews B and C interviews D for 10 minutes. Then partners switch positions and B interviews A and C interviews D for 10 minutes.
4. A,B,C and D get together as a group and discuss as a group. Individuals share what they have learned from the person they interviewed. Students who lack confidence in expressing their own views may feel more confident reporting on the views of others instead of their own ideas. The group collaborates, elaborates and adds to their ideas.

Lesson two

Purpose: To brainstorm and classify information leading to a further investigation of the factors which determine why people live where they do.

Activity: Cooperative brainstorming and classification

Topic: What factors will influence where a person lives?

Procedure:

1. As a whole class, review the rules for brainstorming.
   "DOVE rule" (McTighe & Jones, 1990):

Defer Judgement→	do not make judgements about your ideas or ideas of others.
Originality→	include all ideas, even "way-out" ideas. Encourage unique ideas.
Vastness→	as many as possible - better chance of really good ideas emerging.
Elaborate→	build on other's ideas.

2. As individuals, think of as many ideas as you possibly can.
3. In groups of four, you have 15 minutes to share individual ideas and think of more using the rules for brainstorming.
4. In your group, categorize and label your group's ideas and be able to explain the labels that you decided upon.
5. Share with another group or with the class.

Lesson three

Purpose:

1. To motivate students to explore various issues in Geography/Social Studies.
2. To assess reading and locating skills in a newspaper.
3. To pre-test a student's background knowledge in Geography/Social Studies and newspaper skills.
4. To teach group, organization and problem solving skills.

Activity: Scavenger Hunt

Topic: What is Geography? What is Social Studies?

Procedure:

1. In groups of four, with one whole recent newspaper.
2. Look through the paper and locate as many of the following items as possible.
   - put the date of the paper at the top of the scavenger hunt sheet.
   - put the page number beside the items you have found and the section of the paper it was found in.
3. If the group completes all the items, try to think of more questions.
4. Put the paper back together to show that you are done.

Page No.	Item	Section
_____ 1.	An article on a racial or cultural conflict	_____
_____ 2.	A weather forecast.	_____
_____ 3.	An article about an environmental concern.	_____
_____ 4.	An article about immigrants or immigration.	_____
_____ 5.	The name of an athlete from another country playing a sport in Canada.	_____
_____ 6.	An article about a Third World country.	_____
_____ 7.	A map.	_____
_____ 8.	A food or recipe from a different culture.	_____
_____ 9.	An ad for a foreign film or play.	_____
_____ 10.	A letter written about government actions.	_____
_____ 11.	An article written about native people.	_____
_____ 12.	A comic portraying a different culture or race.	_____
_____ 13.	A classified ad for a foreign car.	_____
_____ 14.	An article about education.	_____
_____ 15.	An ad for a job requiring a second language.	_____
_____ 16.	_____ _____	_____
_____ 17.	_____ _____	_____
_____ 18.	_____ _____	_____
_____ 19.	_____ _____	_____
_____ 20.	_____ _____	_____

Ms Baker completed this paper as part of her work in Richard Harbeck's geography course in the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, during 1992-1993.

The Western Cordillera: A role-play activity for Grade 10 Geography

David Hoeppner

Town Hall Meeting

Setting: You are all residents of Karenslope, B.C., a scenic, relatively untouched rural town about 2 1/2 hours north of Vancouver. The population of Karenslope is about 1000. Lodging, fishing, hunting, and fur farming are the two main economic activities of the town. There is a K-9 school, an IGA, a video store and that's about it. Karenslope's beauty and potential for tourism make it one of B.C.'s "best-kept secrets!"

Problem: Karenslope is too beautiful and unspoiled an area not to be developed. Money, lots of money, could be made from this quiet, pristine landscape! Some groups want to develop Karenslope, but they want to develop it in different ways, and therefore they don't agree on what Karenslope should be made to look like. Other groups want to ensure that Karenslope remains a small, quiet, and unspoiled community.

You have been invited to a town hall meeting, to be held at the Karenslope Civic Centre on _____ at __:____a.m./p.m. All the interested parties will be present to argue in favour of their plan for Karenslope, while attacking and discrediting the other groups' agendas. Your goal is to***win support for your plan!!***

The following groups will be attending:

1. **MacMillan-Bloedel** (the giant pulp and paper company). These people are anxious to obtain unopposed access to the tall tree stands near and around Karenslope. They promise a large number of jobs and spin-off benefits.
2. **National Outdoorsmen Enterprises** (the American-based hunting and fishing group). This group wants to build exotic hotels and lodges in and around Karenslope. With effective advertising in *Forbes Magazine*, they hope to attract rich American and Canadian businessmen to come to Karenslope to hunt and fish. They promise jobs in the service sector and to protect "Mother Nature".
3. **Walt Disney Enterprises** (you know... Mickey, Minney, and Pinnocchio!) This mega-corporation wants to develop a theme park called "Disney GreenWorld", an environmentally-friendly northern version of its American counterpart, complete with rollercoasters, nature walks, waterslides, shops, musicals, a zoo, and high-rise hotels. The greatest achievement will be the DisneySki runs — imagine skiing with Snow White!!
4. **The Slopech First Nation** (the Indian Reserve located one mile north of Karenslope). These 300 status Indians want to ensure that their "Mother" (earth) is not manipulated and polluted in any way. They know that the wildlife will be harder to find when they go hunting! As well, they prefer that all the "Whites" stay away from "their lands" unless invited! Chief Waypatch once said "They may be powerful in the South, but up here is Indian country!!"
5. **Small Business Owners** (the IGA, video store, and gas station owners, plus others who want to open up a business). These people like the idea of an expanded and growing town. They feel any negative side effects of development are paled by the jobs and money development is sure to bring. One group hopes to open a licensed hotel (this would be the first establishment of its kind in Karenslope and save people the 2 1/2 hour drive to Vancouver!)
6. The **"Keep Karenslope Clean" Environmental Group**. This small but vocal collection of local residents feel that the town of Karenslope should never be developed because it will inevitably lead to environmental pollution and forever change the way of life of many Karenslope residents. They say they'd rather live with the low-paying and hard-to-find local job market than take good jobs and watch the environment be raped, suffer, and die.
7. **Student Council of the Karenslope Junior High School**. These students have banded together to save their town from outsiders and environmental disaster. They have held some protest marches up and down the road through Karenslope, and may work with the "Keep Karenslope Clean" group in blockading roads if the need arises. However, they are split, because some students want the part-time and summer jobs that development of any sort will bring (you know — to buy clothes and CDs!!)

What to do next

1. Meet as a group and further clarify your general perspective on the problem at hand. Brainstorm for ideas to use to defend your perspective or ideas to attack opponents with. Use your textbook or library for more ideas.
2. Individually, prepare a 2-3-minute speech outlining *your plan* for Karenslope, and why the other ideas for Karenslope are wrong. Remember that within every position/role, there is a lot of room to maneuver! Be original!!

Evaluation

1. ***Content*** of presentation — 10
2. ***Oral delivery*** of presentation — 10
   (i.e. pace, diction, poise, etc...)
3. ***Open Session*** — participate in a "free-for-all" time where you ask and receive questions and comments ("take your gloves off!!") — 10

Mr. Hoeppner teaches at Grand Rapids School.

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